CARNEGIE BRANCH

The Nation

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FORTY-FIFTH ANNUAL STATEMENT

OF THE

Home Life Insurance Company

GEORGE E. IDE, President

256 BROADWAY, NEW YORK

JANUARY 1ST, 1905

ASSETS

*Bonds and Mortgages	$4,735,239.19
Bonds and Stocks (market value)	7,852,107.49
Real Estate	1,731,053.76
Collateral Loans	12,750.00
Loans to policy-holders	1,551,511.78
Cash in Banks and Trust Companies	332,299.68
Interest and Rents due and accrued	122,636.38
Renewal Premiums in transit and Deferred Premiums, less cost of collection	268,630.79
Total Admitted Assets	**$16,606,229.07**

LIABILITIES

Policy reserve at 3, 3½ and 4 per cent. Int.	$13,783,512.00
Present value of all Dividend-Endowment Accumulations (Deferred Dividends)	1,290,036.00
Total as per certificate of N. Y. Insurance Dept.	$15,073,548.00
All other policy liabilities	170,365.51
Fund voluntarily set aside to meet possible fluctuations in the price of securities &c.	228,211.31
Reserve to provide for all other contingencies	1,134,104.25
Total Liabilities	**$16,606,229.07**

*Of the Mortgage Loans of the Company 87 per cent. is on property located in New York City, 72 per cent. is guaranteed as to principal and interest, and all are on a basis not exceeding 60 per cent. of a conservative valuation.

INCOME IN 1904

Premiums: New	$725,997.69	
Premiums: Renewals	2,312,034.92	
		$3,038,032.61
Interest, Rents		684,647.85
Total		**$3,722,680.46**

DISBURSEMENTS IN 1904

Total Payments		$2,517,417.19
Including Death Claims, Matured Endowments and Annuities	$1,158,871.29	
Dividends to Policy-holders	248,950.65	
Surrender Values	194,143.52	
Balance—Excess Income over Disbursements		1,205,263.27
Total		**$3,722,680.46**

NUMBER OF PAID-FOR POLICIES IN FORCE, **41,541**, being an increase of **3,436**

AMOUNT OF PAID-FOR INSURANCE IN FORCE, **$74,892,289**, being an increase of ..... **$ 5,481,707.00**

RETURNED TO POLICY-HOLDERS since organization, plus assets now held for their benefit **$45,367,568.30**

RESULTS OF THE YEAR 1904

	PER CENT.
Increase in Renewal Premium Income	10.23
" " Total Premium Income	10.03
" " Admitted Assets	9.95
" " Policy Reserves	8.33
Increase in Paid-for Insurance in Force	7.90
" " Deferred Dividend Fund	12.94
Ratio of Interest received to mean Ledger Assets	4.47

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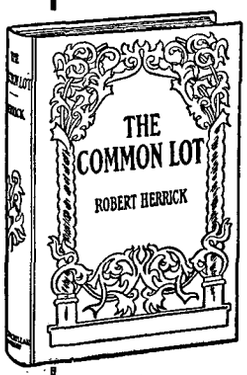

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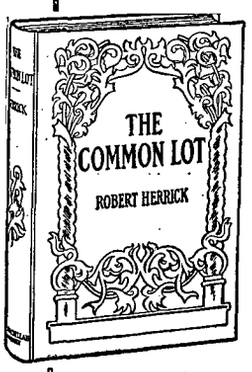

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 12, 1905.

The Week.

The patriotic Senate, fearful lest harm befall an innocent President exposed to the wiles of wicked foreigners, wants the arbitration treaties to provide that each particular case of dispute shall be submitted to its omniscience. In short, we shall agree to arbitrate whenever it pleases the wisdom of the Senate to arbitrate. All this would leave us in exactly the position which we now occupy. The treaties are intended to bind us to a form of legal procedure, and thus to steady the Executive and Congress against gusts of popular passion. The Senate, however, insists on its right to indulge in bluster whenever such a course seems popular, and for the luxury of cheap swaggering would cheerfully emasculate the treaties. It is part of the old and settled Senatorial policy of encroachment upon the rights both of the lower house and of the Executive. The appointing power is nominally vested in the President, with the approval of the Senate; but the theory of "Senatorial courtesy" is to vest it in the Senate, with the approval of the President. The attitude of the Senate toward treaties is meant to make the Secretary of State a mere clerk of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. These pending treaties, Mr. John W. Foster notes in an article in the *Independent*, "fall far short of the desire of the ardent friends of arbitration." Nevertheless, the Senate would nullify them in order to glut its greed for power.

There will not be another Charleston earthquake as a consequence of the confirmation of Dr. Crum as collector of that port. Now that the unavailing struggle to prevent this intelligent and dignified negro from holding office is over, we think those responsible for all the sound and fury evolved must be a trifle ashamed. None of the dire things they predicted has come to pass or will come to pass. The social system of the South has not been torn asunder, nor will it be. All that has happened is that a competent, educated, and self-respecting man has been given a Federal office, and that the color of his skin was not held to be sufficient of itself to shut him out of it. Yet the President, in his efforts to combine the policy of the open-door of advancement for worthy black men with the plan of recovering his personal popularity in the South, should be under no illusions. The South is willing to have him make love to her, but she is notifying the suitor in advance upon what terms she will insist. Thus, the Atlanta *Constitution* expresses a readiness to resume amicable relations with the President, but tells him frankly that he cannot be regarded as a friend by the South "if the negro is to be thrust into official position to serve white people." Either Mr. Roosevelt or the South will have to retreat; that is plain.

It looks as if the future historian would have a chance to dub the coming Roosevelt Administration "the era of warm-heartedness." Here is the case of Mr. Cortelyou. He was to have been made Postmaster-General immediately after the election, but the untimely death of Mr. Payne and his own engagements as National Chairman made it necessary to postpone the honor. Now, after a few months' waiting, the way is prepared to the higher post of Secretary of the Treasury. But Mr. Cortelyou was once a clerk in the Post-Office Department, and has since cherished the natural ambition of the boy in the story-book to come back as the head of the establishment where he served his apprenticeship. It is a sentimental consideration, but was it not sentiment that put Mr. Roosevelt into the Presidency? At all events, Mr. Wynne is to retire on March 4, and Mr. Cortelyou to administer the office for three months until he passes to Mr. Shaw's desk. It is as pleasant and human a story, all around, as has come from official life in a long time, and shows how far we are from having a cold-blooded bureaucracy at Washington. Yet the practice should not be made a precedent. Mr. Cortelyou was also, at one time, executive clerk at the White House, but that would hardly be a sufficient reason for giving him the Presidency.

There are conflicting reports touching Mr. Paul Morton's position. He has explained things to the President, and all is well. But he also has not explained, and all is not well; the Republican leaders are reported to be getting very nervous over the situation. Mr. Morton's case has certainly not been strengthened by Representative Baker's offering a resolution respectfully inquiring whether Mr. Morton's retention in the Cabinet is conducive to the public interest and in harmony with Mr. Roosevelt's last message. But what will hurt him still more is the revival of his testimony before the Interstate Commerce Commission in Washington on December 19, 1901, when the present Secretary of the Navy said, in reply to a question: "Yes, sir, it was an illegal contract. It was illegal when we made it, and we knew that." Whether Mr. Morton can still be punished for this violation of the law, is open to question. But there is no gainsaying the fact that Baker has put Mr. Roosevelt in a very awkward fix. One who has been so vigorous in enforcing laws from the time he was Commissioner of Police in this city to the present day, cannot be pleased to find at his council table a confessed violator of the law. Young men who "do things" are, of course, desirable adjuncts to a strenuous Cabinet, but sometimes it is well to find out in advance just what they have done.

The letters on tariff revision which the *Evening Post* has been printing for the last three weeks reveal at least the strong sentiment which exists among intelligent Republicans in favor of correcting the abuses under the present tariff law. Five out of six, in round numbers, of the Republicans whose letters have thus been published from day to day want the tariff revised. A canvass shows that only about one Republican in eight is not in some measure a tariff-reformer. Among 183 Republicans, only fifteen gave an unqualified "No" in answer to the question, "Do you favor tariff revision?" In fact, some of the men who began by stating that they did not believe in revising the tariff, practically took back that answer in the next line by naming schedules which they wished to see amended. It is rather hard to derive from this showing any confirmation of the notion that Mr. Roosevelt's overwhelming victory was a mandate to let the tariff alone. Under our political system the party in power is, of course, privileged to ignore the demand of fourteen Democrats out of fifteen that the tariff be reformed, or even the wish of nine out of every ten men whose names are taken from a recognized list of men of achievement in all departments. But the voters who placed their confidence in Mr. Roosevelt and helped him to the highest office in the land, have a right to be listened to.

The voice of protest against the candidacy of two unfit men for the United States Senatorship from Connecticut has not yet been smothered. The political, social, and financial power of Fessenden and of his rival, Bulkeley, president of the Ætna Life Insurance Company, has muzzled most of the newspapers of the State. Relatively few of them, Republican or Democrat, dare to speak out and put these two men where they belong—in the pillory. But the leader of the movement for decency, the Rev. Dr. Newman Smyth, continues his course inflexibly, and there is hope that the protestants, with such a candidate as

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Representative E. J. Hill, may hold the balance of power between contending corruptionists. But should both Fessenden and Bulkeley fail, the blessed result will apparently be due more to their quarrels with each other than to the zeal of the press and aroused public spirit.

After the sort of news that we are accustomed to reading from Colorado, it is decidedly startling, though none the less pleasant, to learn that the disputed election for Governor is to be settled in the regulation, common-sense way. That is to say, the Democrat who has an unquestioned plurality, according to the returns as sent to the Legislature, has been inaugurated, and his Republican opponent will make a contest. The allegations of Democratic fraud in Denver being met by charges of Republican fraud in Pueblo and elsewhere, the investigation may closely parallel the previous court proceedings. According to the last score we have seen published, the Democrats have succeeded in putting several more Republicans in jail for election frauds than the Republicans have incarcerated Democrats for contempt of court. The action of the Supreme Court in throwing out the vote of whole precincts in Denver, even though the fraudulent votes could be perfectly identified in the ballot boxes, continues to be discussed. One clever cartoon makes the cashier of a bank say, "I am afraid there is a counterfeit bill in this package, so I must burn the whole lot." The Republicans reply that it would be unjust merely to subtract the fraudulent ballots, as there would then be left all the legitimate Democratic votes, while a good share of the lawful Republican vote was scared away or cheated out of registration. Like all election contests, the question is exceedingly complicated. Still, Saturday's action seems to show some return in Colorado to the old notion that an inquiry into the facts should precede the decision of a case.

In Gov. Pennypacker's periodic discussions of the liberty of the press, nothing is more happy than his choice of illustrative anecdotes and striking precedents. Two years since, in his rôle of historical student, he remarked that one hundred years ago such conduct as that of the Philadelphia cartoonists was punished by chopping off the offender's head and displaying it on a pole. He did not say, in so many words, that he endorsed this treatment, but it was hard to escape the inference. Just so in his message of January 3. "What is the remedy?" he asks, after deploring the state of the Pennsylvania press. "Sooner or later one must be provided. Recently, in one of the States, an offended citizen shot and killed an editor." Pennypacker's own suggestion is that an offending journal should be suppressed by the State authorities as a public nuisance. The amiable dragon which typifies "Graft" and has been portrayed as having at least a calling acquaintance with Mayor Weaver, seems to have incensed the Governor as much as did the parrot bearing his own likeness, or the ungainly cats which represented Mr. Pusey, the author of the bill which forbade the use of "unhuman animals" in cartoons.

The Massachusetts Legislature assembled last week with one of its members in jail for violation of a Federal statute, and saved itself from an awkward predicament by promptly declaring his seat vacant. Mr. Curley of the Seventeenth Suffolk District was to finish in three days his term of incarceration, and his plan was then to begin his term of office-holding. If Mr. Curley had been elected with an unsullied record and afterwards been caught in wrongdoing, the situation would be clear. But his case was peculiar, in that the Representative-elect was already in jail on election day, and, in fact, carried on his campaign from that building as an office. His constituents decided that violation of the Civil Service law to oblige a friend was no disqualification. If they really want to have a convict represent them, it seems a trifle hard not to let them. One legislator had prepared a bill making convicts ineligible to elective office for five years—a piece of legislation which, but for the special conditions, would have been thought almost unnecessary. But the House preferred to take the shorter cut, and draw the line at convicts.

Vermont is the latest of the States to undertake a systematic investigation of tuberculosis. The Legislature which has just closed its session authorized an extension of the scope of the commission which had been at work for two years inquiring into the prevalence of the disease. It will now be continued as an educating body. The importance of bringing home to the people a sense of their peril is indicated in the programme published by the Vermont physicians: "It shall be a part of the duty of the commission to adopt and make use of means to educate the people of the State in respect to the cause and nature of tuberculosis, and the means that may be taken by the people themselves for its prevention and cure, to the end that the large death-rate from this fatal disease—the largest of all in this State and in all civilized countries—may be reduced to its lowest possible limit." Though able to touch only the fringes of the great problem because of the small appropriation available, the Vermont commission is preparing to hold public meetings in every county in the State, at which lectures will be delivered outlining simple precautionary measures, indicating rational treatment and dissipating foolish prejudices against sufferers from tuberculosis.

Superintendent Kilburn of the State Banking Department signalizes his annual report by explicit recommendation of a law requiring cash reserves to be held against trust-company deposits. Mr. Kilburn first refers to the effort of the New York Clearing House, two years ago, to enforce such a requirement by the refusal of check-clearing facilities to trust companies except such as should, at certain stipulated dates, accumulate a reserve to amount eventually to 10 per cent. of their several deposits. The upshot was that practically all the trust companies voluntarily withdrew from the Clearing House. Mr. Kilburn now advises that the Legislature amend the law so as to require of trust companies a reserve—15 per cent. for New York city institutions, one-third of which must be in cash, and 10 per cent. for others, one-half of it being cash. In other words, an absolute uniform requirement of 5 per cent. cash on hand against deposits is recommended. This is a mild application of the law; the New York trust companies, in their statements of last June, showed cash holdings footing up, on the average, only 3⅝ per cent. of deposit liabilities. Furthermore, at the height of that very dangerous speculative period, 1901, the average cash reserve of all the trust companies in this State was but 1¾ per cent. The proposed 5 per cent. reserve is less than State banks in the larger cities have to hold; from them is required a total reserve of 15 per cent., of which half must be cash on hand.

On the retirement of Mr. Henry Rutgers Marshall and President John De Witt Warner from the Art Commission, the Mayor has appointed Mr. Walter Cook, the well-known architect and critic, and Mr. Robert W. De Forest, who has shown a public-spirited interest in many of our local art organizations, particularly the Metropolitan Museum, of which he is a trustee. These selections show that Mr. McClellan desires to maintain the high character of the Commission and to keep it an efficient part of the city government. Nothing else, of course, was to be expected from a man of Mr. McClellan's taste, but it is well to note, also, that the successors of members as active as Messrs. Marshall and Warner—who, one may say, were virtually the founders of the Commission—are also men who will take their function seriously. The Commission has already proved its usefulness in vetoing unworthy plans and sites for civic buildings; it is the only official organization that has any jurisdiction over the public art of New York. Unless

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it is efficient, the various active volunteer bodies who are working for a more beautiful city will largely waste their toil. Moreover, while the Commission has made good its position, the extent of its powers is yet to be worked out in practice. Accordingly, the Mayor deserves everybody's thanks for appointing two gentlemen whose names will adorn the Commission, while their services will undoubtedly strengthen all its operations.

The case against Bishop Ethelbert Talbot has apparently fallen to the ground by the withdrawal of signatures from the presentment. This result puts the other protagonist of the controversy, the Rev. Dr. Ingraham N. W. Irvine, in an unfortunate position, because the signers now allege that their names were obtained by misrepresentation. Bishop Talbot cannot be happy, for in the mind of the public he is suspected of conspiring with a divorced woman to drive Dr. Irvine from the Episcopal Church. Bishop Talbot ought, for the sake of his own fair fame and that of the church in which he is a leader, to press for an impartial and searching inquiry that shall finally settle the question whether he is a colossal liar or Dr. Irvine is a hypocrite. A clergyman's reputation, like a woman's, should be above suspicion. At present, both the bishop and the unfrocked priest are dogged by whisper and innuendo which go far to counteract their utterances and undo their labors. A criminal's reasons for wishing to smother investigation and escape on a technicality are evident; but an honest man wronged by unjust charges must court the fullest publicity or submit to the natural inference.

The marvel of Mr. Carnegie's library gifts is thoroughly familiar, but Mr. Horace White's statistics, presented in his opening address at the Beloit College library, on Thursday, bring out the old facts with renewed force. It will be surprising to many people, for example, to learn that Mr. Carnegie has established nearly as many libraries in England and her colonies as he has done in the United States. His native Scotland is more liberally supplied than any other large district, excepting only New York State, 55 per cent. of whose population may, if they will, use Carnegie libraries, as compared with 43 per cent. of the Scotch population. Of the more populous English-speaking divisions, only Alaska, Arkansas, Delaware, Mississippi, Rhode Island, Australia, British India, and the Cape have failed to profit by Mr. Carnegie's liberality. There could be no surer indication that his plan has corresponded to an urgent need. As for the criticism that libraries are temptingly offered to communities too poor to afford them, the choice lies in the hands of every town, and we have yet to hear of a town wrecked by a literary rake's progress under Mr. Carnegie's incitement. That the libraries frequently circulate trash is true enough, but, as Mr. White well said, within the bounds of morality a public library can hardly do anything else than give people what they want to read.

Evidently there should be written a new chapter on the uses of an ally. England is, of course, our warmest friend in Europe, bound to us by blood which is guaranteed thicker than water, and, above all, by that dear old oratorical commonplace, a common language. Yet we learn with surprise that this highly cherished ally, not to be outdone by our naval Board of Construction, is going us one better in the matter of battleships. Her Admiralty has designed a vessel which will carry ten 12-inch guns, and will be capable of destroying anything afloat or designed. Lest we Americans mistake the import of this action, a London newspaper informs us that this is merely Great Britain's reply to our latest battleships, "in friendly competition." The step is undeniably friendly to our shipbuilders and naval constructors, for it will now be their duty—purely as a matter of "friendliness" to our ally, of course—to outdo her by devising a ship of 500 tons greater displacement than this new terror of the seas, and capable of carrying two more 12-inch guns. England can then again show her friendliness by designing a still more formidable ironclad, merely for the purpose of fighting by our side some day, or rather in behalf of the Anglo-Saxon race. This is the most delightful game we know of, and the best part of it is that if an ally lags behind, one or two putative enemies will do quite as well as partners in the sport.

No wonder that the English Liberals are busy framing the next Government. Every bye-election shows how strongly the tide is running against the Balfour Ministry. On Saturday the Conservatives lost a seat at Stalybridge, the Liberals winning by a thousand votes. As it happened, the Board of Trade returns for December, and for the entire year 1904, were published on the same day, and showed how absurd is the Chamberlain contention that England is being rapidly ruined by free trade. Ruin on the terms of an increase of about $100,000,000 in foreign commerce is not so black as it is painted. It was noted in the last speech made by Mr. Chamberlain that he did not quote a single figure. Mr. Asquith commented upon the fact satirically, and asked if there were to be no more statistical demonstrations of the havoc wrought by free trade. The Board of Trade, however, has furnished the missing figures. They are as eloquent in their way as the poll at Stalybridge. Both of them show what good reason the Conservatives have to dread a general election.

Nothing has become the present Hungarian Parliament like its taking off. The Opposition has distinguished itself by obstructionism almost unparallelled for rowdyism; Premier Tisza has been forced to strain the Constitution in order to maintain even the semblance of a law-making body. The Government and the Opposition go before the electorate with little credit on either side. The appeal is hardly to principle. Vague enthusiasts for Magyar independence will vote with Kossuth; prudent believers in the compact between Austria and Hungary with Tisza. The Independence party has, however, gained a valuable ally in Count Apponyi, a vigorous debater and party leader, who seems rather moved by indignation at Premier Tisza's drastic measures of parliamentary discipline than by any zeal for the idea of an independent Hungary. It is assumed that the Premier has the unqualified support of the Emperor-King, and will be able to present himself definitely as the champion of the Dual Monarchy. But it will be very difficult to get a clear mandate on this issue from the voters. The electoral system is so perversely complex as to make a vote anything but the rendering of a popular verdict. Furthermore, the merely personal vote is large; that based on uncompromising Magyarism still larger. In short, about the only hopeful feature of the Parliamentary situation in Hungary is the generally conceded fact that a new House of Deputies can hardly be more ineffectual than the last.

To detect political meaning, primarily, in the resignation of Prince Mirsky, whose portfolio of the Interior M. Witte is reported to be about to assume, is difficult. Both are liberals. Witte presumably is of a more prudent and calculating mind, as befits an ex-Minister of Finance. Prince Mirsky, according to varying accounts, is either offended at the reprimand to zemstvo agitation with which the Czar's rescript was accompanied, or frightened by the spectre of Constitutionalism which he himself has evoked. It is pretty well established that the general and guarded form which the reform ukase finally received was due to M. Witte, Prince Mirsky desiring concessions in the direction of an Imperial Parliament. It seems likely, then, that Mirsky goes for having manifested *trop de zèle*—and hence for reasons very largely personal—and that the projected reforms will come about gradually under the cautious direction of Witte, whose allegiance to progressive ideas is unquestioned.

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THE PROGRAMME.

The conference on Saturday between President Roosevelt and the Republican leaders in Congress did little but report progress—backwards. Nothing is to be done the present session. Those whose strength is in sitting still, are in control. No tariff changes, no railway-rate regulation, no general legislation of any kind, will be attempted this winter. The proposed extra session of Congress in the spring is to be abandoned. A policy of stand pat all round will prevail. Such is the net result of the bruited conference which was to agree upon a legislative programme. It is said that there are to be further conferences, but the more they confer, the more things will remain unchanged.

Mr. Roosevelt elaborately disavowed any intention to dictate to Congress. It was simply for information that he rose. To consult party sentiment was his only desire. What the managers thought the wisest course was all he wanted. But these are only conventional and hollow phrases. Everybody knows that the President has measures near his heart. Everybody knows that he is doing his best to persuade Congressmen to take up his views. He may not openly assert his power; but the astonishing conversions already recorded are proof that Representatives and Senators secretly feel his sway. Jupiter does not ostentatiously demand sacrifices; but somehow an evil disease attacks the man who refuses to bring an offering, or a murrain falls upon his cattle. Similar are the workings of Presidential disfavor. Mr. Roosevelt would never think of dictating to Congress. He simply, after earnestly instilling certain ideas of his own into the minds of influential leaders, asks them to come in a body and restate the matter as if it originated with them. In so far, his method is not unlike Odell's famous way of going to work to "collect the sentiment of the party."

The upshot as to tariff revision is, that a gentleman's agreement has been made to begin that work in an autumn session of Congress. During the interval, the really wise and great "friends of the tariff" will ponder over the true number of thirty-seconds to cut off, in answer to the Hamlet cry, "Oh, reform it altogether!" Even this delayed beginning of an urgent work is conceded grudgingly. Messrs. Platt, Cannon, Dalzell, and Grosvenor state that their personal conviction is wholly against the necessity of touching the tariff at all. Still, they say with fine magnanimity, since it is apparent that the country wants it—the proof being a "sudden and unexpected agitation"—it is "advisable to meet the wishes of the people and grant them the concessions which seem to be desired." Thanks, gracious sirs! We know that we are foolish children crying for tariff candy that will give us colic, but it is so kind and condescending of you to give it to us. Only, we beg, do not repeat your gift of 1882, when you promised to cut down the tariff but really raised it, and then, when hard times followed, turned on us reproachfully and said: "Now you see what comes of interfering with protection!"

That the President sincerely desires the undoing of at least the grossest tariff outrages, we have no doubt. But does he desire it so intensely as he does certain other things? Some of the leakings from the conference make us a little doubtful on that point. Mr. Roosevelt assents to the deferring of tariff revision, but against the proposal to retrench in naval expenditures he sets himself firmly. That part of his programme he regards as vital. To him, the voting of one battleship instead of four, and two cruisers in place of seven, would seem a sort of leze-majesty and high treason combined. Has he not himself declared it necessary to the peace of the world to have a navy big enough to be a constant threat? If he is told that the Treasury is running too low to afford such luxuries, he replies that he sees clearly the need of keeping down expenses—only it must be the other fellow's expenses, not his. The question is if as stiff a fight for tariff reform as the President is making for swollen armaments would not have left him something better than his fine array of delays and uncertainties.

Of two things, we think, he may rest assured. One is that his opponents in Congress will resort to every subterfuge and dilatory measure to thwart him or any other tariff reformer. Their motto is, "We and time and the rules of the Senate against any two Administrations." We are freshly reminded of what can be arrogantly done in that line by Senator Teller's calm notification that he will not allow the Statehood bill to pass. A tariff bill next October or next December may encounter such a Senatorial veto. What is certain is that one delay invites another, and that, the standpatters, having drawn first blood in disposing of the spring session, will press on to make the autumn session barren if possible. And President Roosevelt ought not to count too much or too long upon his "tact" in using his party machinery for the public good. His appeal to party loyalty will steadily diminish in force as his term progresses, and as the plans to nominate another man in 1908 are perfected. Mr. Roosevelt undoubtedly accomplished surprising things in his first term by persuading the party to fall in behind him; but then he was the predestined candidate. The case will soon be very different with him, and we fear he will find, to his disappointment, that he has not at hand that "constant service of the antique world" which "sweat for duty, not for meed." All the greater reason, then, for his striking hard and boldly for the causes he holds dear, before the authority derived from his remarkable endorsement by the people shall have grown pale and dim.

THE LAND FRAUDS.

The reports that there have been extensive frauds in the Government land offices of Oregon and Idaho will surprise no one who has even a casual acquaintance with the commerce and politics of the Pacific Northwest. The astonishing thing is that operations in which prominent politicians (and, in all probability, large corporations) are involved should be investigated by officers of justice. Putting in the probe has demanded more energy and courage than most Eastern men suppose; and praise for fearlessness should be heartily accorded to both Secretary Hitchcock and President Roosevelt. In removing a United States District Attorney and pressing for an indictment against Senator Mitchell and Representative Hermann, they have encountered the bitter hostility and dared the wrath of strong social, political, and financial interests. For in that part of the country the land question, as it is sometimes called, is one phase of the eternal struggle between the corporations and the people.

The avowed policy of the Federal Government has been to keep the public lands from falling into the clutches of corporations, to prevent monopoly, and to give every man a chance at the soil. This idea is not only popular, but just. The corporations, however, are always aiming to secure large holdings: they want huge tracts of the best farming lands; the rival lumber companies are scheming for the largest acreage of the finest and most accessible timber; combinations of contractors have plotted to seize long ridges of choice building stone; coal operators wish to extend their possessions; and the machinations of the copper miners to obtain the most valuable deposits have made Montana politics a synonym for corruption.

In order to preserve the rights of the individual, Congress has passed exceedingly stringent laws for the distribution of land. The person who takes up a homestead, for example, must reside upon or cultivate the tract for five years, and he must swear that he is "not acting as agent of any person, corporation, or syndicate," or "in collusion with any person, corporation, or syndicate, to give them the benefit of the land entered, or any part thereof, or the timber thereon," and that he is not engaged in the enterprise "for the purpose of speculation." All this before a clear title can issue. The applicant for mineral lands must take a similar oath, and he must expend five hundred dollars in improvements on the claim. Stone and timber entries, under specifications suit-

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able for the nature of the land, are guarded with equal care. It is against these strict provisions that certain corporations have organized a formidable conspiracy.

Their frauds fall roughly into two classes. In the first place, the thieves describe the land wrongly. The difference in price between lands for farming, lumbering, and mining may make it worth while to secure a tract of timber under pretence that it is a farm, or a mine under cover of a timber entry. Sometimes there may be actual doubt as to whether a given section is worth more for farming, lumbering, or quarrying; but if the Government officials are lax, doubts where none exist will be raised and settled in favor of a claimant. In frauds of the second class, the land is correctly described, but the claimants are either speculators or dummies. Many an individual on his own initiative will make entry and commit perjury in the hope of turning an honest penny by the sale of his claim. The process, if the officers of law are conveniently deaf, dumb, and blind, is so simple that the proprietors of a lumber mill in Oregon or Washington will deliberately hire fifteen, twenty, or even more men to take up contiguous claims, which shall later be consolidated in the hands of the company. The concern is thus saved the expense not only of buying in the open market at high prices, but also of operating with heavy and costly machinery on small and scattered tracts. If the registrar of the local land office will mind his own business and not go behind the affidavits, he will usually hear of something to his advantage.

But vulgar bribery is not the only method of swindling Uncle Sam. The more important companies, with hundreds of employees, have intimate connections with banks and mercantile houses of all kind. They are socially and politically an enormous power. In any campaign they can make it clear to a candidate for either branch of Congress that he will alienate them and their friends unless he guarantees men of the right sort in the land offices. The appointees, who can always have the enthusiastic endorsement of the leading men of their region, bankers, lawyers, and even clergymen, understand in advance that they are not to run amuck. The big lumber operators are pillars of State, and as such can do no wrong. To question them or doubt their good faith is to interfere with the divine order of the universe. The United States District Attorneys are early taught the important lesson that they must not ruin local industries and plunge the community into woe. There is, in fact, a tacit understanding among high and low that a patriot will let sleeping dogs lie.

Into this Garden of Eden, a paradise of corruption, the strenuous President has rudely broken with the flaming sword of justice. Oregon, Washington, and Idaho are almost as much shocked as New York would be were men of the unquestioned standing of Senator Chauncey M. Depew and the officers of the New York Central indicted for granting rebates to favored shippers.

"FOR BUSINESS REASONS."

"Why did you violate a statute of the United States?" "For business reasons." Such were, in effect, a question and answer at the Interstate Commerce hearing in Chicago on December 30. The question was put by the Commission to W. B. Biddle, freight-traffic manager of the great Santa Fé Railway. It had first been shown that a rebate had been secretly given by his orders on coal shipped by a certain company to certain points. A copy of the confidential circular to the road's agent had been put in evidence, carefully headed: "This publication is for the information of employees only, and copies must not be given to the public." Here were at least two clear violations of the Interstate Commerce Act, which forbids in terms the granting of rebates under any guise whatever, and directs common carriers to "file with the Commission" all its "schedules, contracts, agreements, arrangements," etc., relating to freight traffic. Reminded of this law, and plumply asked why he had not obeyed it, Manager Biddle coolly replied, "For business reasons." A highwayman might have said the same.

This scandal goes higher. It touches Mr. Paul Morton, Secretary of the Navy. He has been advertised as President Roosevelt's handy man in promoting legislation to regulate railway rates. Yet he now appears as one who defies existing law. The transaction referred to took place in 1902, when Mr. Morton was Vice-President of the Santa Fé, in especial charge of freight traffic. Whether at the time directly responsible or not for Manager Biddle's illegal acts, Secretary Morton approves them now. "What Mr. Biddle did was exactly right, in my judgment," he says. And he adds: "Everybody did just as we did, and they had to or go out of business." So might Dick Turpin defend the taking of purses on Hounslow Heath. He needed them in his business. Yet it was the same Mr. Morton who said in his testimony before the Interstate Commerce Commission in 1900: "I think the corporation should be fined whenever it grants a rebate, and the shipper should be fined and forced to disgorge what he has received." Evidently, Mr. Morton would not fall under Walpole's objection to "good men" in times of emergency, namely, that they "will not go the necessary lengths."

President Ripley of the Santa Fé takes substantially the same attitude as Mr. Morton. He regards it as an outrage that the Interstate Commerce Commission should bring to light such purely private business arrangements. When asked if there had not been a violation of the law, he loftily replied that this was "a matter for adjudication by legal minds." But the plain, every-day lay mind is competent to adjudicate the moral aspect of the affair, and it will see in it an alarming indication of the tendency of men in control of great corporations to consider themselves above the law. Statutes are well enough for the ordinary run of poor devils, but a railway magnate, a giant captain of industry, a vast operator, must necessarily be *supra legem*. Otherwise, as Mr. Morton explains, he would "have to go out of business." The truth seems to be that some of these men feel their power so great that they are arrogating to themselves the divine right of a sovereign to be immoral. They adduce what are practically "reasons of State" for their cool disregard of the laws that bind common mortals. The Machiavellian principle that "a good result" excuses any violation of law or morals, they quietly adopt; along with every defence made of a Napoleon or a Bismarck. Just as a German University lecturer could declare that "the maintenance of the State is superior to every moral rule," so they assume that, in order to "get business," a man may trample on the law and perjure himself like a gentleman. To say that entire truthfulness and scrupulous regard for the law of the land would mean a certain loss of freight, is enough, in their minds, to justify lying and lawlessness.

It is acts such as the Santa Fé's secret rebates, and attitudes such as that assumed by President Ripley and Secretary Morton, which are pushing on the movement for more stringent legislation with irresistible power. "This beats anything I have known during my twenty years and more of service in the United States Senate," said Senator Cullom the other day. He was referring to the flood of letters pouring in upon him every day from Western business men begging for the passage of a law regulating railway rates. We in the East are not so excited. This is partly because we take our cheating in more docile spirit than they do in the West; but more because in the West nearly every farmer and merchant is a shipper, and feels intensely the power of the railroads to ruin him by discrimination. These men are not enemies of property; they are not filled with hatred and envy of the rich; they will not go in for any kind of Socialist propaganda unless driven to it in despair. But they want common carriers to be made to obey the law, and not allowed to plot in the dark to pull down one man or company in order to build up

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another. They are thoroughly aroused on the subject, and President Roosevelt can nowhere make a more welcome application of his doctrine of "the square deal." Only, of course, he will have to take the cards out of the hands of Mr. Paul Morton.

On their side, railroad men have no reason to dread a fair measure of regulation. If it restrains them, it will also protect them; and no one can have mingled with railroad managers without having heard them cry out against the special-car companies, and the elevator companies, and the terminal companies which beset them and raid them and torment them with demands for secret and illegal favors. Instead of trying to get on without the law, or in defiance of it, a really far-sighted railroad manager should be glad to have rigid statutes which it would be an advantage all around to live up to literally. When a man like Mr. J. J. Hill comes over to this view, the project cannot be dismissed as either ignorant meddling or disguised confiscation; and, in the end, "business reasons" must tell fatally against the men who really demoralize traffic as well as conscience by their reckless methods. Any business whose honor rooted in dishonor stands, demands attention—even if there result a vacancy in the Cabinet.

OLD SUBSIDY WRIT SMALL.

Senator Gallinger's report accompanying the new ship-subsidy bill is at least a literary success. Never was so brave an attempt made to butter stale parsnips with fine and freshly devised words. The terms "subsidy" and "bounty" are avoided as if the plague lurked in them. "Subvention" the wise it call, or eke "payment." And a curious felicity in inventing novel phrases to cover up familiar jobs marks the play of Mr. Gallinger's fancy. Steamships which their owners are paid by the Government to build and operate have unpleasant associations; but now, it appears, we are to say, "our marine delivery wagons." That makes all clear—plain sailing, as it were. Every country storekeeper, however opposed he might be to paying money out of the Treasury to the Shipping Trust, is expected to see at once the need of setting up delivery wagons to carry our goods to market, lest, as the report elegantly observes, we "smother at home in our own prosperity." So, too, we learn that a subsidized steamship is rightly to be regarded as "a floating factory," or as "a locomotive and a steel bridge wrought together." Few suspected Senator Gallinger of having such command of "the hoight of foine language intirely."

When all his flowers of rhetoric and his special pleading are brushed away, however, we find a vicious idea underlying them, namely, that of making a private business pay by vote of public money. Disguise it as the report may try to do, that is the principle upon which the bill goes. Obviously, the argument is just as sound for any other business as for that of shipping. At least, any industry or means of transportation involved in the production of goods destined for foreign commerce is as much entitled to subsidy as the steamship. The farmer's wagon that hauls the wheat to the railroad is as deserving of a subvention as one of Mr. Gallinger's marine delivery wagons that carries it across the ocean. Capt. Mahan has written hopefully of the time when American shipping will again "pay"; the report starts off by assuming that it never can be made to pay unless the Government makes up the recurring deficits.

The report abounds in unconscious self-contradictions. It says that the high cost of materials in this country, combined with high wages, makes it impossible to compete with foreign nations in shipbuilding. Yet it admits that we can compete in locomotive-building and bridge-making, though the same alleged causes of inferiority are operative in those industries; and is not a steamship merely a locomotive and a steel bridge wrought together? The report dwells upon the present depression in American ship-building as if it were due to foreign competition; ignoring the fact that our yards were crowded with business two or three years ago, when foreign shipwrights were also busiest, and that the depression is now world-wide. Elsewhere, it is true, the report speaks innocently of the "period of dulness which alternates with activity in shipbuilding," and which now "prevails in England." As for the wages argument, it is employed on different pages of the report with delightful inconsistency. Nowhere do we find a really scientific comparison of wages on the score of efficiency of labor.

But the most glaring fallacy of the report and of the accompanying bill is the contention that the present laws leave American shipbuilding without protection. We carefully protect every other industry, laments the report, but leave our shipping industry exposed to the full fury of foreign competition. But the reverse is the truth. Shipbuilding is the most completely protected of all American industries. Foreign imports in that line are not merely taxed; they are absolutely prohibited. An American citizen cannot buy a steamship abroad and sail it under his own flag or engage with it in our coasting trade. This is the very acme and perfection of protection. It is as if American steel-makers had not simply their $7 a ton duty, but were able to get a law enacted that no steel whatever could be imported. Shipbuilding really enjoys protection *in excelsis*. The idea was to force Americans to buy home-made ships. The result has been that they have gone without, just as they would go without bananas if all were shut out except the $2 apiece brand grown in American hothouses for Americans. What we truly have in the Gallinger report is a confession that the most thoroughgoing system of protection imaginable has abjectly failed, and that resort must now be had to direct bounties.

The bill itself is hardly worth while discussing in detail at the present time. It is admitted at Washington to have no chance of passing in this Congress. When every effort is necessary to keep down appropriations, it is highly improbable that a gratuity will be voted to shipowners. It is doubtless in view of this situation that the present demands of the bill have been whittled down to the lowest terms. "Ocean greyhounds" are omitted. There is a fine flourish about securing a naval militia of daring American seamen, but the crews of the subsidized vessels are required to be only *one-sixth* American, and the best the report can promise is 3,000 men, as against the 20,000 which the Navy Department says is imperatively needed. For two admissions we thank Senator Gallinger. One is his frank confession that the law ostensibly allowing the free import of materials used in shipbuilding has never had any practical effect; and the other is the statement that American steelmakers furnish foreign shipbuilders plates at from $8 to $10 a ton cheaper than they sell at home. This the Gallinger report calls "an unjust and intolerable burden," but it lisps not a syllable about removing tariff duties behind which such outrages shelter themselves.

GOV. HIGGINS'S MESSAGE.

The first message of Gov. Higgins suggests no revolutionary reforms, no such changes in the organization of departments as Gov. Odell set on foot four years ago. The document is, as people expected it would be, clear, direct, and business-like.

The most important problem for the incoming administration is keeping expenditures below receipts. In the first place, the total appropriations in force October 1, 1904, are $2,319,222 more than the income; and the Comptroller estimates that under existing laws the revenue for the present year will be less than that of last. For one thing, recent decisions by the Court of Appeals will reduce the taxes from certain corporations and compel the return of money already collected. If the savings-bank tax is repealed—as Gov. Higgins in accordance with his preëlection promise recommends—$720,000 more will go by the board. Then, too, judgments and other claims against the State demand an extraordinary outlay this year. In

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the face of such conditions the Administration must get more or spend less, or do both.

Since Gov. Higgins urges no plan for increasing revenue, his mind is evidently turned toward the sound policy of retrenchment. For example, instead of having a census of the State at a cost of $600,000, he would have a mere enumeration at $250,000. This, of course, is only a drop in the bucket. His main reliance is to persuade the finance committees of the two houses to supervise rigidly all expenditures. Here he is on firm ground, for his most valuable public services were as chairman of the finance committee of the Senate, where he gained an intimate knowledge of every branch of the State's business. In the Legislature, as in Congress, there are many separate appropriation bills, conceived with no particular reference to each other or to the resources of the treasury. Various members are trying to get what they can for their pet schemes. A consolidation of these different bills into a single act would go a long way toward enlightening the public and the legislators themselves as to ways and means. The Governor is under no illusions as to the pressure that will be exerted in "particular instances" even by the loudest advocates of "economy in the abstract." He is therefore, we assume, prepared to exert the great power reposed in him by the Constitution to veto separate appropriation items. Under this authority he can practically fix limits and declare that whenever they are exceeded he will interpose.

In treating the State charitable institutions, Gov. Higgins would evidently steer a middle course between centralization and local control. The former policy, as carried to the extreme by Gov. Odell, roused bitter hostility among many well-disposed people who were much interested in charities. Gov. Higgins, for his part, would not go all the way with critics of Gov. Odell, for he recognizes the demonstrated necessity of centralized management of financial operations. He would, whenever possible, make purchases in large quantities and from the lowest satisfactory bidders after public advertisement. The dribbling out of supply contracts through local boards would indubitably result in leakage and loss. The all-important, and at the same time difficult, point is the phrasing of a measure which shall define and adjust the relative rights of the two contending forces, shall secure economy and efficiency and "retain the coöperation of philanthropic citizens."

Residents of Greater New York will be gratified to learn that Gov. Higgins will resist the annual attempts to break down our Tenement-House law. This measure, which aims not merely at "the benefit of the poorest families," but also at "the general welfare of the community," is, in his view, definitively established. From his tone we are justified in inferring that no changes can be made except by the friends of the law.

The Governor's utterance on excise is also of deep significance. His mind is plainly more open than that of his predecessor, for he would have the Legislature consider whether the "right of local option should not be extended to cities and the divisions thereof." Thus far the desires of Greater New York have received scant consideration at Albany. Our virtuous rural statesmen, who stand sponsors for the malodorous Raines-law hotels, have recoiled with horror from the thought of allowing this wicked city to have a voice in the regulation of its saloons. The agitations of the last four years spent their strength against the granite of Gov. Odell's refusal to take up the question. Assemblyman Newcomb's bill for a referendum to discover the actual state of public opinion here and proceed upon it, was heartily backed by many of the most earnest advocates of temperance; and yet the whisper that legalized opening on Sunday was a possibility killed that measure before it fairly saw the light. The attitude of Gov. Higgins will lend heart to the movement led by District Attorney Jerome, the Rev. Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst, and others. This time New York may get at least half a loaf.

The temper of rural constituencies is not such as to nourish hope of an act immediately granting local option on Sunday opening. That phrase would be a flag of defiance to all the country churches. But the small end of the wedge would be local option as to the exclusion of saloons from specified districts. The main fight at this moment is for the establishment of this principle. Once the application has been made, it will be extended. The time may yet come when hours of opening and other police regulations will depend upon the widely different habits and needs of the communities which form this vast city.

THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM.

On successive Saturdays the *Evening Post* has been publishing critical articles on the collections in the Metropolitan Museum. In the first essay it was shown that five-sixths of the drawings by old masters in the Vanderbilt collection were unworthy of exhibition; the remainder misnamed and recklessly catalogued. It was shown in the next article that there is about 10 per cent. of false attributions in the paintings by old masters. A third article revealed constant and only partly excusable disregard of chronology in the placing of casts and inscriptions. In the fourth and last article was brought out the fact that many of the Tanagra terra-cottas are forgeries, and that the two capital pieces of the "Olbia Treasure" are pretty certainly recent work of the creator of the Louvre Tiara of Saitaphernes. This discovery confirms rumors long current among art dealers and amateurs. In a word, so far as the *Evening Post's* investigation has gone, it has brought to light defective scholarship and bad museum management.

It was well that the facts should be displayed with considerable minuteness, because more general criticism was likely to be misunderstood, certain of the trustees having publicly and privately attributed these comments of the *Evening Post's* to its well-known atrabiliousness. Others hinted that the criticism was of an ignorant sort. Except in a small remnant of the governing body of our greatest American museum, there was found a marked disposition to maintain that this was the best possible museum in the best possible world. The refutation of such ill-informed optimism is the facts adduced by the *Post;* but perhaps the most instructive because unconscious illumination of the causes of the present disorder has been letters in the *Tribune* by a member of the executive committee and by Mr. George H. Story, curator of paintings. The trustee took the ground that all deficiencies which had been noted were due primarily to lack of funds for administration. Mr. Story brought out the significant fact that the necessary corrections in the attributions of the old masters in the Marquand collection were known to Mr. Marquand and himself some ten years ago. That no changes were made in the catalogue was due to Mr. Marquand's personal instructions. The trustee's apology *in forma pauperis* is plausible, and, of course, accurate as a definition of the growing financial needs of the Museum, but it displays a shortsighted view of museum economy. By various obvious savings, a fund to pay proper salaries to expert curators could be accumulated. Mr. Story's apologia puts him in the position of consciously perpetuating error to please a generous donor. This absolves Mr. Story, but it casts a rather startling light upon a novel attitude of donors towards their gifts. Apparently, the Marquand collection continued to be handled as if it were the private possession of its giver. And what would be the position of a museum which should honestly write on all its erroneous labels, "Retained by order of the President"? That Mr. Morgan will take any such stand, with regard to any exhibit, including his own "Olbia Treasure," is inconceivable; he will, on the contrary, both as a business man and as an enterprising collector, take such steps that the Museum shall be able in the future to detect forgeries through its own staff and before exhibition.

Mr. Story's avowal of the curious position he occupied as a perpetuator of error under Mr. Marquand, casts a strong

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light upon the real weakness of the Museum. It has not had officials who exercised the responsibilities of curatorship. Too many of its curators are merely a superior sort of custodian. They have simply guarded the objects chosen and contributed by other people. Now the chief function of a competent curator is to serve as buying agent for his department. Knowledge of the market, and initiative, are indispensable; in fact, the ideal curator combines the qualities of the savant with those of the art dealer. The Museum has grown chiefly through the unstinted generosity of its trustees and friends. Such liberality has, taken in the large, been discriminating; it rarely, however, has been fully informed. There has always been a needful work of revision, which has by chance, and even by design at times, been left undone. The result of this neglect is the rather scandalous disorder which now prevails.

That there were reasons for this state of things we know, and, knowing, refrain from blaming anybody of the inner staff or the general administration. Trustees and private donors necessarily cannot have the knowledge it takes connoisseurs years to acquire; overworked custodians with no money to spend for acquisitions cannot become experts. The Museum has drifted into the present confusion through no especial fault of any one; so much, for the sake of argument, we concede willingly. But the facts are the facts. To-day, in all that pertains to scholarship, this institution brings discredit upon its administration and the city. There is a more important task than that of apportioning blame or determining historic causes. The situation itself makes its own appeal. Here are great sums to be spent annually with inadequate resource and skill to withstand the assault of astute forgers, interested dealers, and disguised art brokers; here is inherited error of the gravest kind to be set right. Clearly, the case calls for the ablest director and the most scholarly curators that can be had. Mr. Morgan can do no better service to the Museum he controls, and to the city, than to perfect an organization which will be answerable for everything but the financial management. It may be assumed that such a needful reorganization would find a place for those officials who have served long and faithfully according to their lights and opportunities. The imperative thing is that it should be undertaken. In the light of museum science as it is practised to-day, malfeasance would not be too strong a word to apply to any prolonging of the old régime. In this matter we are sure that we speak the thought of the most enlightened friends of the Metropolitan Museum.

THEODORE THOMAS.

Theodore Thomas, the most famous of American conductors, who died in Chicago on January 4, was not an American by birth. He had, however, lived in this country from boyhood, and in it his ambition, his interests, and his affections were centred. He was born in Esens, Hanover, on the 11th of October, 1835, his father being August Thomas, a violin player, who discovered his son's musical ability while the latter was still an infant, and did his utmost to encourage it. He succeeded to such good purpose that the young Theodore could play the violin cleverly when he was six years old, and was proficient enough to make a public appearance before he had attained the age of ten. In 1845 his family settled in this country, and remained in New York for two years, during which time the boy played successfully in concerts. His performance even then was distinguished by remarkable resonance of tone, precision, and delicacy. From New York he went South and travelled until 1851, when he returned to this city and played at the opera as one of the principal violinists during the engagement of Sontag, Jenny Lind, Grisi, and Mario. In 1853 he cancelled most of his engagements and devoted himself to a study of various branches of music, taking a course in harmony under Rudolph Schellinger. Under Arditi, who was then conductor of the opera during the engagement of Mme. Lagrange, Theodore Thomas rose to be leader of the orchestra, and continued to fill the position of leader and conductor in different German and Italian troupes until 1861, when he gave up all connection with the theatre. Before this, in 1854, he had become one of the leading members of the Philharmonic Society of New York, and in 1857 he travelled with Thalberg and afterwards with Piccolomini and other distinguished foreign artists. In 1855, in connection with Messrs. William Mason, Bergmann, Rosenthal, and Matzka, he established quartet soirées which proved immensely popular.

Mr. Thomas's authority as a conductor and as an expert in the making of programmes was now fully assured, and he began laying the foundation of that splendid orchestra which for many years represented the height of musical achievement in this country and made his name celebrated throughout the artistic world. In 1866 he gave concerts in Irving Hall, and subsequently travelled with his orchestra through many sections of the country, returning to give performances at the Terrace Garden in Third Avenue, and later in the Central Park Garden, which places became the Meccas of all lovers of good music. His orchestra remained practically intact until 1888. In 1878 the presidency of a new college of music at Cincinnati was tendered to him, and he accepted the offer on the express condition that he should be at liberty to carry on his work as conductor of the New York and Brooklyn Philharmonic concerts. He held this post for only two years. The success of the Cincinnati triennial festival, established in 1874, led to others of a similar nature. In 1884 Mr. Thomas organized a series of festivals in the leading cities of the country. At the close of these festivals, which occupied three months, his entire orchestra was taken across the continent to the Pacific Coast, where similar programmes were presented. In 1885 he accepted the directorship of Mrs. Thurber's American Opera Company. With a great orchestra and a numerous band of singers, he gave "Lohengrin," "The Flying Dutchman," "Orpheus," "The Taming of the Shrew," and "Nero" in various places. The enterprise was a monetary failure, but the important cities of the country enjoyed a rare festival of opera.

In 1891 he was called to Chicago to direct the new orchestra established in that city. He was not a stranger there, for he had visited Chicago as early as 1859, and ten years later began a series of orchestral concerts, continuing them, under local organizations, from 1870 to 1877. In this latter year he established in Chicago a regular season, gave festivals there in 1882-84, and continued the annual series of concerts after the establishment of the orchestra over which he had charge until his death. This orchestra was founded in 1890, through the efforts of fifty men who contributed each one thousand dollars. Since that time the orchestra has given many concerts in Chicago and elsewhere, and under Mr. Thomas's leadership has reached a high degree of proficiency. He gave the Chicago organization the use of his private musical library, the largest in the world, and of inestimable value. In 1895 he celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of his arrival in the United States. Only the other day, on the 15th of last December, he took formal possession of Orchestra Hall, the fine new building erected on Michigan Avenue, Chicago, as the permanent home of the band of which he was the creator. The occasion was a brilliant one, and the costly structure was filled with an enthusiastic audience, the élite of Chicago, to honor the man of whose lifework they were to enjoy the fruits. That night he conducted with all his wonted authority and inspiration, and there were no premonitions of the death that was soon to overtake him.

The most remarkable characteristics of Mr. Thomas as a musician were his catholicity of taste and consequent versatility. No one ever interpreted the oldest masters —Bach, Handel, Gluck, Haydn, Mozart— more impressively than he, or with a keener insight into the antique spirit of music. Beethoven and Schubert he worshipped, and he made propaganda for them every week of his life. At the same time, he was an enthusiastic champion of modern music. He did missionary work for Wagner, Liszt, and Berlioz, at a time when it meant money out of his pocket and the incurring of critical censure. And he kept his interest in new music to the last moment, his latest protégés having been Elgar and Strauss. In this catholicity of taste and ability to interpret the old and the new equally well, Theodore Thomas resembled Franz Liszt. He had chosen for his Philharmonic programme in this city, in March, Beethoven's "Eroica" symphony and Richard Strauss's "Death and Glorification," thus exemplifying his liberal-mindedness. Had there been room he might well have added some work like Professor Paine's "Island Fantasy" by way of calling attention to the fact that he did more for American composers than any other conductor has done.

Theodore Thomas was a born commander. As a general he would have held Port Ar-

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thur as long as Stoessel held it. His stubborn determination to carry out his plans and wishes frequently got him into trouble, and he made many enemies; but they were for the most part enemies to be proud of. He was not without jealousy, and when Anton Seidl came to America he looked on him, unfortunately, as a rival rather than a helper. But when he became more familiar with Seidl's admirable work (with the Thomas orchestra) at some of Mr. Grau's operatic performances in Chicago, he cordially offered his colleague his friendship and praise. Dr. William Mason, speaking of the early days when he and the future conductor played chamber music together, says that Mr. Thomas "rapidly developed a talent for making programmes by putting pieces into the right order of sequence, thus avoiding incongruities. He brought this art to perfection in the arrangement of his symphony concert programmes." Here, indeed, lies one of his chief distinctions.

At rehearsals Mr. Thomas was a martinet. Woe to the player who, from indifference or lack of skill, made a mistake! Numbers could not hide him. Among twenty violinists his ear and eye would pick out the offender. In the concert hall his conducting was calm and undemonstrative, but he obtained the results he wanted because his men knew him. An amusing phase of his life, on which he himself liked to dwell jokingly, was that when he first began his career as conductor, some of his critics declared that while he was an excellent quartet player, he was out of place at the head of an orchestra. Later on it was said that while, of course, he was a first-class orchestral leader, he made a mess of it when he conducted a chorus; and, finally, when he assumed the bâton of the operatic leader, his ability as chorus conductor was conceded, while he was advised to keep his hands off the operatic scores. As a matter of fact, he achieved splendid results in all these departments of music, while he was greatest, undoubtedly, as an orchestral conductor.

His place will be hard to fill. The one crumb of comfort to music lovers in Chicago is that he would not have had many more years to conduct, as he was nearing seventy. He preserved much of his vigor, however, to the end, by eschewing work several months every year, and spending his summers on his estate in the White Mountains, of which Mrs. Theodore Thomas has recently given an interesting description in her book, 'Our Mountain Garden.' Glimpses may be had in this book of the tender side of Mr. Thomas's character. He had a keen sense of humor, and his Autobiography, soon to appear, will doubtless include some of the stories of his early experiences which throw an amusing light on the history of music in America.

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF AMERICA.

BOSTON, January 1, 1905.

The sixth general meeting of the Archæological Institute of America was held in Boston and Cambridge on December 28-30, 1904. The sessions of Thursday were held in Cambridge, in the Fogg Museum of Art; the others were held in Boston, in the buildings of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The first session, on Wednesday afternoon, was devoted to the commemoration of the founding of the Archæological Institute in Boston twenty-five years ago. The circular issued in 1879, calling a meeting to effect a formal organization, was signed first by President Eliot and last by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, who is justly considered the true founder of the Institute, and who served as its first president for twelve years. Prof. F. W. Putnam of the Peabody Museum also was active in founding the Institute, and the presence of these three distinguished founders gave pleasure to the scholars who gathered for the general meeting. On Wednesday afternoon, after a graceful speech of welcome by the host, President Pritchett of the Institute of Technology, Professor Norton gave a charmingly characteristic address, speaking of the true aims of the Archæological Institute, of those who had been associated with him in its work, and of what had been accomplished. He was followed by Prof. John Williams White of Harvard University, President of the Institute from 1897 to 1903, and he in turn by representatives of the four chief fields of the Institute's scientific activity—Prof. James R. Wheeler of Columbia University, Chairman of the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens; Prof. Andrew F. West of Princeton University, Chairman of the Managing Committee of the School in Rome; Prof. George F. Moore of Harvard University, Chairman of the Managing Committee of the School for Oriental Study and Research in Palestine; and Mr. C. P. Bowditch of Boston, Chairman of the Committee on American Archæology. The School at Athens was founded in 1881, soon after the Institute itself; the School in Rome in 1895, and the School in Palestine in 1901. At its first session in the Fogg Museum of Art, on Thursday afternoon, President Eliot welcomed the Institute, and in some detail drew out the contrast between what archæological excavators now uncover of the remains of the ancient Greeks and Romans, and what the archæologists of two thousand years hence are likely to find as the relics of our civilization—when the paper of our books shall have rotted, when the stone veneering shall have fallen from our buildings, and the iron frames shall have rusted.

The Boston Society of the Institute had made abundant provision for the social entertainment of the visiting members, including a dinner in the "Living Room" of the Harvard Union and a reception by Professor and Mrs. White; and on Friday noon all who were free from other engagements were received by Mrs. Gardner at Fenway Court. The papers presented covered the entire field of archæology. Prof. G. Frederick Wright spoke of the physical conditions in North America during man's early occupancy; Rev. Dr. William Hayes Ward on "The Evidence from Archaic Art as to the Origin of Babylonian Civilization," showing that it must have been imported; Mr. A. M. Lythgoe on an "Early Prehistoric Cemetery at Naga ed-Dêr, in Egypt." Mrs. Williams reported on the pottery found in Miss Boyd's important excavations at Gourniá; Prof. L. B. Paton on his explorations, which seem to have determined at least one point in the line of the third wall of Jerusalem; Professor Marquand on the temple of the Didymæan Apollo near Miletus, and so on to the Indian archæology of southern California and Mr. C. F. Lummis's entertaining presentation of the Primitive Music of the Southwest. As usual, papers on Greek subjects slightly predominated—owing chiefly, no doubt, to the influence of the School at Athens; but Oriental and American archæology had a fair share of attention. None of the papers were strictly philological. Some papers were read in full which should have been read by title and printed, but a specialist does not easily remember how unfamiliar his data may be to most of his associates. Important adjuncts to the meetings were addresses given on successive mornings in the Museum of Fine Arts—by Mr. Edward Robinson, the director of the Museum, on its collection of vases; by Mr. M. S. Prichard, assistant director, on the terra-cottas, bronzes, and coins, and by Mr. B. H. Hill, assistant curator, on the original sculptures in the Museum. The number of scholars in attendance was larger than usual, but none came from States west of Michigan or south of Mason and Dixon's line, except Mr. Lummis and Dr. Palmer from Los Angeles. The winter recess in our institutions of learning is not long, and not all scholars are willing to be absent from home during the Christmas holidays.

For the first time, the business meetings of the Council of the Institute and of the Managing Committees of the two Schools of Classical Studies were held in connection with the general meeting of the Institute for the reading and discussion of papers on archæological themes. Most of the business before the committees of the schools was of a routine nature, no important questions arising for determination. Great satisfaction greeted the announcement of the appropriation by the trustees of the Carnegie Institution, for a term of years, of $1,600 a year for two research-fellowships, and of $1,000 a year for the publication of the results of research, for the School in Rome, and of $1,000 a year for an architectural fellowship, and $1,500 a year for explorations, for the School at Athens. The Institute established a fellowship in mediæval and Renaissance archæology, to be administered by a committee, of which Prof. Allan Marquand of Princeton University is chairman. The Institute also enlarged its Committee on American Archæology, and appropriated $2,500 to be expended under the direction of this committee. This is probably the largest appropriation of the kind made by the Council, and indicates not only the increase in the means of the Institute, but also that the Council recognizes the desire of many members to have an efficient part in the work of American archæology. The Council gave its vote of sympathy with the bill proposed in Congress for the reservation as a public park of a district designated by the Colorado Cliff Dwellers' Association. The Institute's Committee on the Preservation of the Remains of American Antiquity has prepared a bill which has secured the approval of archæologists of all parties, and which will be urged upon Congress this winter. The commercial and wanton despoliation of American ruins has continued far too long.

The report on the publications of the Institute shows that several important works are nearly ready. The long-delayed second volume of 'The Argive Heræum,' an

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elaborate exposition of the excavations conducted on that site by Dr. Charles Waldstein and his associates, is all in type, except the index. The first volume of "Papers" of the School in Rome, also richly illustrated, is to be published within three months. Of the folio publication of the explorations of the Institute at Assos, the second and third parts will be published together, leaving the fourth and fifth parts for a later year. The drawings of the architectural survey of the Erechtheum, on the Athenian Acropolis, are said to promise the most satisfactory publication ever made of an ancient building, but the form and time of publication are not yet determined. The facsimile of the Venetian codex of Aristophanes, published jointly by the Institute and the (English) Society for the Promotion of Hellenic Studies, has sold so well that the price of the remaining copies will be raised after April 1 next. For the elaborate work by Prof. A. L. Frothingham, jr., of Princeton University on the Triumphal Arch of Trajan at Beneventum, a prospectus is to be issued immediately.

The former officers of the Institute were reëlected with the exception of President D. C. Gilman, who declined a reëlection as vice-president, and to whose place Prof. George F. Moore of Harvard University was chosen. The membership of the Institute has been increased in a marked degree, and now numbers nearly 1,500. The next general meeting of the Institute is to be held in conjunction with the Philological Association in the Christmas holidays of 1905, at Cornell University.

BARONESS DU MONTET'S REMINISCENCES.—II.

PARIS, December 28, 1904.

The 'Recollections' of Madame du Montet are almost painfully disconnected—it is evident that she took to her pen in the most irregular manner, as the spirit moved; but this irregularity has its good side, as she wrote only under the impulse of a lively desire and of a clear perception of the past. We find, for instance, a passage on "Napoleon, First Consul," of this character:

"I have always," she says, "felt a certain distrust and incredulity in looking at portraits. I am glad to have *seen* Napoleon. There are historical faces which make us see clearly into history. I pity the contemporaries of this prodigious man who were deprived of this advantage; it seems to me that he must produce on them the effect of a cloud of fire, of a colossal bronze image, or of the exterminating angel. . . . It was in the month of July, 1801, in magnificent weather. The First Consul was to hold a review in the Court of the Tuileries. We had cards of entrance to the grand apartments through which he was to pass; they were filled with an enormous crowd when we arrived. Fine grenadiers enclosed us, keeping open way; my father was behind them. . . . [I remark here that this passage will remind the readers of Balzac of the beginning of one of his striking novels.] We stationed ourselves in front of the great staircase which the First Consul was to descend. He appeared a few moments after, surrounded by a brilliant cortège, all that Paris contained at the time of the famous generals. We fixed our gaze only on Napoleon. He wore the green chasseur uniform without gold; a very simple hat also. . . . On reaching the landing, he stopped suddenly and put his hand to his hat, casting on our little group a glance which I shall never forget. We were dressed in white, and had on our heads (it was the fashion of the time) rather long veils of very thin white muslin. . . . My father gave us his arm; his face was noble and severe; his dress still revealed the old soldier; there could be no mistake—he was a real gentleman. The First Consul regarded us with a deep, scrutinizing look, with a glance of well-marked benevolence. . . . Perhaps he thought that we had a petition to present to him—the *émigrés* often presented them at the throne. I can say without presumption that it would have been well received.

"Bonaparte was then twenty-nine or thirty years old. He was very thin, pale, with very dark hair and eyebrows; his physiognomy had a sort of melancholy which expressed not a painful preoccupation, but, rather, profound thought. . . . The Emperor Napoleon, very fat at the end of his reign, did not resemble at all the First Consul."

Many are the details given on the subject of the Empress Marie-Louise. In July, 1815, Madame du Montet writes from Baden (near Vienna):

"This is the life which the Princess leads at Baden this summer. She rings for her women at six or seven o'clock. Her inkstand is brought to her, and she writes in bed till ten o'clock, when she gets up. Her morning like her evening toilet is delicious; her women take extreme care of it. At eleven, the *grande-maîtresse* comes down, as well as all the persons of distinction attached to the Princess. Then comes an excellent breakfast. She works, draws, performs music like an angel—most of the time with her *grand-maître*, General Count Neipperg, who is an excellent musician. Nothing is said, nothing done without Marie-Louise inquiring of this officer, 'What do you think of it, General? What do you say, General?' It is the everlasting refrain."

"Here are some examples of her rare coolness. When she heard the news of Waterloo, she was at the castle of Schoenbrunn. She took in the afternoon a long ride, without showing the least emotion. Élise's husband is *cavalier d'ambassade*, and Élise was afraid, on account of some commission she had given him, that he might not have arrived in time for the battle of Waterloo. She expressed this fear very unwisely to Marie-Louise, who, after having heard her for a long time with the greatest patience, ended by responding coldly, 'Are you going mad?' "

"The Empress said one day to Élise that Napoleon only once showed himself angry with her, telling her 'You are a *petite sotte*, and I will send you back to your father'; upon which she turned majestically towards him and said to him: 'It is all I desire.' He immediately asked her pardon."

So little has been said about Marie-Louise after she was brought back, not unwillingly, to her father, that I will cite some more extracts from Madame du Montet's journal. She writes, again from Baden, in July, 1815:

"Marie-Louise is pretty, as fresh as a rose, and with a charming figure. People here are surprised at this change, for when she left Vienna, she was awkward, she walked and stood with little grace. She is adored by her attendants. Élise tells me that Napoleon's servants who followed the Princess have an attachment which savors of fanaticism for the ex-Emperor; his reverses throw them into despair. One of the ladies, who is the wife of a confidential surgeon of Napoleon, speaks of him only with tears in her eyes. A few days ago she saw the little Prince up to some childish tricks. 'What a pity!' she exclaimed; 'they will make of him a little Capuchin.' "

The French servants of Marie-Louise were soon replaced by Germans; her *grand-maître*, the Marquis de Bausset, did not long remain. The Emperor had made M. de Bausset a baron; he said at Vienna: "The first thing Louis XVIII. did for me was to give me back my title of Marquis." (M. de Bausset published Memoirs not devoid of interest.)

During the Congress of Vienna, the Princesses were constantly putting questions to Marie-Louise about Napoleon. They would be informed what degree of intimacy there was between them, whether Napoleon allowed her to have a confessor, etc. The Grand Duchess Catherine was the most indiscreet; speaking of M. de Neipperg to Marie-Louise, she would always call him "your general"; speaking of Gen. Koller, she called him simply "my general." Marie-Louise once told how she first saw Napoleon. She did not expect that he would go so far to meet her. She was in a carriage with Mme. Murat, the Queen of Naples; it was very hot, and they had taken off their hats and put lawn handkerchiefs on their heads. They saw a great cloud of dust; the door of the carriage was opened; Mme. Murat was frightened. Napoleon kissed the forehead of Marie-Louise several times before saying a word.

During the war of 1809, Napoleon established his headquarters at a little distance from Vienna, in the splendid Benedictine abbey of Mölk, which still exists and may be admired on the way to Vienna. Madame du Montet gives some details about his stay there:

"He occupied the great ceremonial apartments. The furniture and the pictures were very simple, but the rooms were adorned with the portraits of the Princes of the Imperial house. That of the Emperor Francis II. occupied the place of honor. After a few moments' repose, Napoleon sent word to the superior that he wished to speak to him. The old man obeyed the order, and arrived at once with two monks, one of whom, Aloys Stüpfel, an Alsatian, was to be the interpreter. Napoleon was in the middle of the room, on a chair which he kept half-turned before him. His face was dark and threatening; he looked intently at the Father Abbé, and put him this question: 'Can the Church release subjects from the oath of fidelity taken to their Prince?' . . . The old man, broken by age, made such an energetic answer that the officers present were stupefied, and feared a violent scene. After a moment of silence, Napoleon changed the conversation."

I have met with this anecdote nowhere else. It is characteristic of the state of mind of Napoleon at the time. He visited, during his stay at Vienna, the monument which Canova had made for the Archduchess Maria Christina, by the order of the Duke of Saxe-Teschen. It was late in the evening, when the monks were already in their cells. He admired the work, and said merely, "Vanité des vanités, tout n'est que vanité." None of the officers who were with him knew, nor did he himself, that it was in the same church that the unfortunate Marie Antoinette had been affianced and married by proxy to the Dauphin of France.

It is curious to read the observations which Madame du Montet makes on the son of Napoleon, the Duke of Reichstadt. She saw much of him, and writes, at the end of 1817:

"Prince François has all the gestures and attitudes of his father. It is very singular, for he could not copy them from him, as he did not see much of him, and his governors here try to correct them. He continually keeps his hands behind his back. He also has a habit of advancing one foot, as Napoleon did. His long blond hair, which is carefully curled every evening with forty *papillotes*, make him look deliciously pretty, but this toilet is insupportable to him, and he asks constantly that his hair be cut, like that of other children. [There is, in

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the Château de Chantilly, a little portrait of the young Prince, with this abundance of curls, which, I believe, came from the Princess of Salerno, who was an Austrian Archduchess, the sister of Marie-Louise.] He resembles the children of Maria Theresa in his eyes, complexion, and beautiful blond hair; but he has in his mouth and his general aspect something which reminds one of his father. . . . This child has certainly much intelligence. . . . History is his passion. He is timid, and always consults with his eye Count Dietrichstein, his *grand-maître*, before doing anything or accepting anything."

The passages which I have excerpted from the 'Recollections' of Madame du Montet will probably save her book from oblivion. It is a pity that she did not put some sort of order in a work which here and there has interesting pages, and notes on an immense number of people. As it is, the volume can be read only as you listen to an interrupted conversation. The writer was evidently fond of gossip, and most of her recollections can be classed only under this rather vulgar expression.

Correspondence.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am sorry that in the issue of the *Nation* for December 29 you find it advisable to speak with such severity of the series of bibliographies prepared under the direction of Mr. Griffin of the Library of Congress. All that your reviewer does say is very likely true, but these lists, I think, ought in fairness to be judged according to the measure in which they fill the purpose for which they seem to be intended. I am not too familiar with them, but they have impressed me as standing somewhat to bibliography as newspapers do to literature, serving a present need, and as an aid to busy people in quick and probably superficial investigation. The speed with which they appear indicates the character of their construction. It must surely be of considerable service to public men, especially in Washington, to be able to reach promptly a mass of information, even if it is not fully digested, on such timely matters as Chamberlain's tariff plan, on "recognition" in international law, or on the popular election of Senators. When we speak of bibliography in its full sense, that is quite another matter. I have been at this humble trade for nearly twenty-seven years, and I honestly doubt if elaborate bibliography serves any extended usefulness. These lists, however, are unpretentious, and seem practical and timely, wholly aside from the question of their scholarship, accuracy and the natural differences of opinion as to methods of arrangement pursued. In regard to the partial furnishing of notes of information, I recall that Mr. Griffin is one of the pioneers of descriptive bibliography, and has rendered no little service in this way. The fact is, any elucidation which clears the tangle of books on any subject is just so much to the good, and as for the perfect bibliographer, there is none perfect—no, not one.

Possibly your reviewer has unintentionally failed to give credit for the actual zeal shown and the help probably rendered to others besides scholars and thorough investigators. As a rule, experts can look out for themselves. Lindsay Swift.

Public Library of the City of Boston,
January 7, 1905.

[We allow full weight to the above plea in mitigation, but we could adduce careless and erroneous annotation in addition to technical defects of arrangement, etc.—Ed. Nation.]

A DISCLAIMER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Very greatly valuing the application of your higher canons of criticism, I can with ill grace complain of your judgment of my 'Abraham Lincoln.' I think, however, that the slur which your reviewer cast upon "my" grouping, in the phrase, "the Garrisonian-Giddings-Lovejoy-John Brown method," is not deserved, since it is mine in no sense, and it ought to be a plain inference from my text that I am describing a kind of feeling in the South, where, at the time, distinctions as to the precise views of Mr. Garrison and John Brown were not clear—where, indeed, existed a desire to confuse names and place the responsibility for violence where it did not belong. If I have not made myself understood in so plain a matter, it is my sad misfortune.

Any "sordidness" in my view of Lincoln is not felt, and it is again a misfortune if it has been expressed. If the testimony of Herndon, and the many whose reminiscences have been gathered by Mr. Thorndyke Rice, and the impressions of men like Charles Francis Adams, Goldwin Smith, Henry Villard, and Edward Dicey are to be disallowed, the picture may be more pleasing, but it will be very far from dispassionate or just. As for the rest, there is much in the point of view. That my portrait may not be perfect in color or proportions is entirely conceivable. It is, at any rate, an attempt at an honest presentation of character in the light of this century, when we are coming to think less and less of the meaning of those old names "North" and "South," wherein for long lurked so much antagonism, suspicion, and bitterness. Ellis P. Oberholtzer.

Philadelphia, January 6, 1905.

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL CONGRESS AT ATHENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Dr. T. W. Heermance, Director of the American School of Classical Sttudies at Athens, kindly wrote me a letter on the 18th of December containing information in regard to the coming Archæological Congress at Athens, which cannot fail to be of interest to a large circle of readers of the *Nation*.

The committee on the Archæological Congress met on the 17th of December and fixed definitely the date of the meetings. The Congress will be opened on Saturday, the 8th of April next, and the sessions will close on Thursday, the 13th of April. On the 14th of April the special archæological journey will begin, and will continue until Tuesday, the 2d of May. A special steamer will convey the party taking the journey to some of the more important sites in Greece accessible by sea, and to some of the Cyclades and other islands, to Crete, to Rhodes, and to some of the coast cities of Asia Minor, and finally to Troy and to Mt. Athos. This itinerary is unusual, and exceptionally attractive. It cannot fail to open new vistas to those archæologists who may be so fortunate as to take the voyage. The Congress, whose opening session, as I understand, is to be held in the Parthenon, will surely be most stimulating to the progress of archæology.

In general, as one who feels the stirring influences of the meetings in connection with the twenty-fifth anniversary of the American Institute of Archæology held in Boston last week, I should like to be allowed to say here that I am convinced more firmly than ever that the significant advance in scientific archæological research made by American scholars in the last quarter of a century, and the widespread sympathy with this study, are among the most potent agencies to cope with whatever of vulgar materialism exists among us, and to give shape to aspirations for culture—culture at once refined and quick with large humanity of feeling.—Very truly yours,

William Carey Poland.

Providence, R. I., January 2, 1905.

Notes.

We recur to the announcement of the Arthur H. Clark Co. of Cleveland, the publishers of the important historical series, "The Philippine Islands, 1493-1898," that the edition will be strictly limited to the number of subscribers after February 1 next. They state that the support accorded this publication, which was to comprise 1,000 numbered sets, has been so inadequate that they are facing serious financial loss upon it, but that they intend to complete the fifty-five volumes promised for the libraries and individuals who have subscribed. Thus far, less than 100 sets have been placed in this country, although a larger number have been placed in the public libraries of Europe, India, Australia, the Far East, and the Philippines. Of the sets thus far sold in this country, all but seven are in public libraries. Twenty volumes had been issued to the end of the year, and, after the issuance of volume 22 on or about February 1, the number of volumes printed prior to that in excess of the number subscribed will be destroyed. The publishers are strictly correct in alleging that this "is the only work making anything like a comprehensive array of Philippine historical sources available in any language, particularly in English, and the call for it will increase from year to year, especially when the volumes cover more recent years and the index volumes make these sources more readily available." "With the limitation of this work to so few sets, it will practically not be procurable later on, and will scarcely be found outside of the larger reference libraries."

We may add that the Arthur H. Clark Co. announce that volume xxxii. and possibly a portion of volume xxxiii. of the Philippine series will contain the original Pigafetta relation of the Magellan expedition, with a page-for-page English translation. The Italian text is copied from the original manuscript in the Biblioteca Ambrosiana,

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Milan, Italy, the oldest Pigafetta manuscript in existence. All the peculiarities of the manuscript (which is written in the queer Venetian dialect of the early sixteenth century, with occasional French and Spanish words) have been carefully preserved; and thus for the first time will scholars who cannot have access to the original manuscript be enabled to have before them the exact text of Pigafetta, along with the copious annotations, while the translation will for the first time open to English readers the unabridged narrative. It was at first the intention to publish the older of the two manuscripts (both in French) which are preserved in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris, and that manuscript was actually copied; but it had to yield to that of Milan. Pigafetta's is a sympathetic and apparently true account of the first circumnavigation of the globe, and is full of information of many strange lands and peoples.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, make the important announcement that they will bring out in April the Musical Autobiography of the late Theodore Thomas in two volumes—"the first devoted to his life work, the second almost entirely to programmes." The work was quite finished before death overtook the writer, and had been intrusted to Mr. George P. Upton, the well-known writer on music, who will essay an appreciation of the great conductor. A chapter on "programme-making," from Mr. Thomas's own pen, will accompany (with other like discourse) the groups of programmes here brought together.

Brentano's have nearly ready two volumes in a series of handbooks entitled "The Music of the Masters," viz., 'Wagner,' by Ernest Newman, and 'Tchaikovsky,' by E. Markham Lee. They will deal solely with the music of the respective composers, and will contain many musical quotations.

Four of Lord Beaconsfield's novels, 'Vivian Grey,' 'Coningsby,' 'Sybil,' and 'Tancred,' are to be brought out handsomely in March by L. C. Page & Co., Boston, with photogravure frontispieces and critical introductions.

'Who's Who' for 1905 is, from force of habit, larger than its predecessor (London: Black; New York: Macmillan). Its principle of inclusion is not defined even for British subjects. The American ambassador at St. James's, Mr. Choate, naturally finds a place, but equally does our ambassador to Rome, Mr. Meyer, and Prof. Dewey of Columbia (for example). The existence of 'Who's Who in America' might suggest a reduction and elimination on this line to cope with the swelling home matter. Continental names occur sparsely, yet often enough to enhance the value of this standard work of contemporary biographical reference.

To the Athenæum Press Series (Ginn), Mr. Beeching contributes a convenient and useful edition of 'The Sonnets of Shakspeare.' The introduction fills fifty-five pages; the notes, fifty-one. Concerning the identity of Mr. W. H., the dark lady, and the rival poet, Mr. Beeching adopts the only tenable view—that of the agnostic. Certainly the Sonnets can no longer be regarded as having been written as mere poetical exercises or in adulation of a patron; they must, if interpreted most naturally, have had a basis of actual experience. But that Southampton, Pembroke, "William Hughes," William Hervey, or any other person thus far mentioned was the friend, is "not proven." All that can safely be affirmed is that he was "a person known in society, of good birth and fortune," but not necessarily a nobleman; and possessed of the wit and passion which were typical of the gay Elizabethans. As for the claims of Chapman, Daniel, and Barnes to be called the rival poet, Mr. Beeching is equally skeptical. The section dealing with form and style is admirably specific; the illustrative lists might have been extended to advantage. The notes are concise, but in general satisfactory. The note on *canker-blooms*, liv. 5, might have included a reference to correspondence in the *Athenæum* for July 23-August 27, 1904. On the bibliographical side Mr. Beeching's book, like most text-books of our time, is inadequate. But what he has attempted, Mr. Beeching has done well.

The 'Vital Records of the Town of Brewster, Mass.,' to the end of the year 1849, is the first fruits (apart from the *Mayflower Descendant*) of the Massachusetts Society of *Mayflower* Descendants. The industrious editor of that periodical, Mr. George Ernest Bowman, has had the collation and proof-reading of the present volume, which is to be followed rapidly by similar ones for Halifax, Truro, and other towns in Barnstable and Plymouth Counties. To this end, a "Cape Cod Town Record Fund" has been established (and must be sustained) by private gifts. The execution in the case of Brewster is admirable, and all the names of those whose births, deaths, and marriages are recorded in the eight original volumes are duly indexed under one alphabet. Contributions or orders should be sent to Mr. Bowman at No. 53 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston.

In recording the completion of Miss Hapgood's translation of Turgeneff (Scribners), in sixteen volumes, comprising *all* the novels and tales found in the St. Petersburg editions of that author's works, we should have remarked that "The Region of Dead Calm" (volume xii.) seems to be the tale to which a correspondent in the *Nation* for April 21, 1904, refers under the title "Country Life," and which, as he states, is not included in Mrs. Garnett's translation.

The "Maybrick Case" had certain peculiar features, the most important of which was the impaired mental health of the judge who tried it; but everything of public interest about the matter has been long since told. 'Mrs. Maybrick's Own Story' (Funk & Wagnalls Co.) adds nothing to our knowledge in this respect, and will not alter the judgment of such as have concluded, after a careful examination of the record, that the Home Secretary did well in recommending a commutation, and not a pardon. Whatever value the book has, is due to the account given by the author of the administration of prison discipline in England, which appears to be, compared with our own practice, exemplary.

In the five hundred and odd pages of 'The Naval Constructor,' by George Simpson, M.I.N.A. (New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.), there is compactly stowed nearly, if not quite, all the material data needed by those engaged in the design, construction, equipment, and maintenance of ships. As it would be inconsistent with sanity to attempt to know all the facts this book contains, it may well be recommended to modern shipmen as a vade-mecum, in accordance with the claim of the title-page and the handy size of the volume.

In his 'Analytic Interest Psychology and Synthetic Philosophy' (Baltimore: King Brothers), Mr. John Summerfield Engel, a graduate student in the Johns Hopkins University, imports into psychology from pedagogy an element all but entirely neglected hitherto by the psychologists; and he seems to have struck a rich vein. This neglected through recognized element is *Interest*, of which the pedagogicians have always made much. It is surely wrong that the pure science should pay so little attention as it has hitherto done to a fundamental element that shows itself so important in applied science. The book evinces a very considerable force of thought, with thorough and original study. A further prosecution of the theory will clear it of its crudities, and it is likely eventually to undergo considerable modifications; but it deserves mention now as the first germination of a body of thought which by its vigor and vitality promises to grow into something that may occupy a large place in the future of psychology. At present, Mr. Engel would reduce all feeling, volition, and cognition to the action of Interest, and to make it the corner-stone of philosophy, which we guess is a good deal too much.

The latest of the Knackfuss 'Monographs on Artists' (Bielefeld and Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) is devoted to George Frederick Watts, with text by O. von Schleinitz, and the usual profusion of reproductions. In these, Watts's largeness of composition and weight of thought are as conspicuous as ever, but the defects of the process have rather accentuated the faults of his technical method, so that one gets a rather painful impression of woolliness and feebleness of representation. A few of the portraits form exceptions to the rule in this respect. We miss the noble portrait of Joachim, one of Watts's finest and most unequivocally successful productions.

The publication in German of Professor Fahlbeck's recent work 'Sveriges Adel,' under the title 'Der Adel Schwedens [und Finlands],' brings a very meritorious treatise before a larger audience. The Swedish edition has been compressed into one volume, and such matter has been omitted as was of comparatively local interest. The work undertakes to study the vicissitudes in decline and regeneration of a class, and is led into what is really a biological examination of fertility, longevity, mortality, and the many other elements that enter into the complicated question. The basis of the study is largely genealogy, but the author cuts loose from the microscopic scrutiny into which genealogists often fall, and envisages the subject in a way to give his results a wide-reaching importance for the social sciences. Of especial interest is the discussion of the "results and dangers of the two-children system." The author thinks that restriction of births was a factor in antiquity second to none in inducing degeneration and decline. He realizes, however, as many harsh judges of the so-called disciples of Malthus do not, the forces in the modern systems which make limitation of offspring inevitable. Among these he is led to assign great weight to the movement towards an independent status on the part of women. He regards

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four or five as the ideal number of living children to the family, and he looks to religion alone and a "sense of duty towards the Origin of all things" to react against the tendency of the age, and to inspire man to present sacrifice for the sake of society and the future.

The third volume of the 'Jahrbuch der Deutschen Bibliotheken' has received a welcome addition to its list of publications relating to the various libraries, in that not only the titles in the two previous volumes have been cumulated, but the principal references in the 'Adressbuch' of 1893 have been added, making a very complete bibliography of the chief sources of German library history. These sources are very numerous, and show clearly the important place which libraries occupy in the intellectual life of the nation, besides being a worthy monument to the literary activity of German library workers. The statistical part of the present volume is devoted chiefly to library buildings. Circulars asking for data were sent out to the 147 libraries contained in the previous volume of the 'Jahrbuch,' and 124 replied. The 23 from which no information could be gained are mostly of minor importance, though the university library of Heidelberg is one of them. During the past year six foreign institutions have entered into agreement for direct loans with German libraries; among them the Academy of Sciences in St. Petersburg and Trinity College in Dublin.

The philosophical faculty of the University of Vienna has decided no longer to permit the promiscuous attendance of women at the practical exercises of the teachers and the lectors as special students (*Hospitantinnen*). In a communication to the *Neue Freie Presse*, the dean of the philosophical faculty, Dr. Meyer-Lübke, gives the reasons for this reactionary step, the chief being that the privilege has been abused, and that women have flocked by scores to these practical departments, who, unprepared to do the work, evidently came chiefly because private lessons in French and English were too expensive. Practically the measure means that women will be admitted only after a more rigorous examination of their abilities, and, of 97 applicants recently made, 20 were rejected. Naturally, this decree does not affect the regular women students.

The *Frankfurter Zeitung* reports that the number of foreign students at the French universities is steadily increasing. During the past academic year the total was 2,510, and of these, 1,003 were women. Paris alone reports 1,315 foreigners, and among them 401 women. Montpellier has 224 foreigners enrolled, fully half of whom are women. In Grenoble there are 223 foreigners, nearly all of these being Germans; and in addition 352 non-French took part in the well-known "vacation courses" of this institution. Of the other French universities, Nancy reported 165 foreigners; Lyons, 87; and Bordeaux, 86.

A new scholarship scheme for the public schools of London has been presented to the County Council by a sub-committee of that body. It has some features of general interest. Under the present system 3,174 children of parents whose income is below a certain sum hold scholarships valued at $390,000. The new plan proposes to throw open the junior scholarships to all pupils of the elementary schools of the age of 11-12, who have reached the "scholarship standard," with an additional maintenance allowance when needed. These scholarships would then cease to be badges of poverty and become titles of honor, the striving for which would supply an immense stimulus to the work of the children and secure the interest of their parents in their education. The expenditure, it is estimated, would in 1910-11 amount to $1,376,000. The scheme is criticised by the London Teachers' Association as one aiming to secure teachers rather than to improve the general education of the London children. This is shown by the selection of twice as many girls as boys, and the restrictions on the continuance of the scholarships after 14 unless a bond to become teachers is entered into. Such a plan, "while giving girls opportunities of becoming teachers, will not help the nation in competition with other countries, as too few scholarships will go to boys."

A novel educational feature in the Far East is a course of "visual instruction as to Great Britain" about to be introduced into the curriculum of the schools of Hong Kong, the Straits Settlements, and Ceylon. Simple lectures on the scenery, country life, London, historic centres, etc., have been prepared and are to be translated into the different languages spoken by the children of these colonies, and will be illustrated by lantern slides. The object of the scheme, in furthering which these colonies have taken the lead and provided the funds, is to strengthen through mutual knowledge the ties uniting the Empire.

—The January *Harper's* opens with a readable sketch of Dr. Thomas Radcliffe, famous for his attendance, and his refusals of attendance, upon ailing British sovereigns, about the close of the seventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth centuries. Dr. Radcliffe is said to have died of an apoplexy brought on through fear of being murdered because of the popular resentment aroused by his crusty refusal to comply with a summons to the bedside of the dying Queen Anne. The article is finely illustrated with reproductions of portraits of Queen Anne, Dr. Radcliffe, and other famous physicians of the time. Professor Lounsbury discusses the *-or* vs. *-our* controversy, with the comfortable conclusion that one has a right to his individual preference in the matter. Prof. John Bassett Moore traces the steps by which the United States advanced from the traditional transatlantic doctrine to the position that a man has the natural right of expatriation, with the full right to claim protection by the country of his adoption against any further claim of authority over him by the Government which he has abandoned. Hugo De Vries, the Amsterdam botanist, describes an extended series of experiments with the great evening-primrose (*Œnothera Lamarckiana*), by which he has been led, contrary to most biologists, to the conclusion that permanent variations in natural development originate in sudden leaps, rather than by the slow accumulation of changes so slight at any one time as to be practically invisible. The Easy Chair discusses sweetly the problem which now and then generates so much of the *odium philologicum* in more scientific circles, whether or not people can think at all without "thinking in words." The decision is in the affirmative, which has the double advantage of being right and of cutting the writers of romance out of the claim that they have really *thought* simply because they have been so prolific of words—a claim which might be hard to dispose of if the identity of language and thought were once admitted. We have the promise for February of some new Longfellow material—a really important find, if we may accept the estimate of the publishers' announcement. Another interesting announcement is that Mr. Howells and Mr. James will exchange their literary bases for the year, Mr. James being in America to write of things American, and Mr. Howells studying at first hand the England of to-day, both exclusively for—etc. We do not feel sure that the willingness of our most prominent writers to bind themselves so closely to one channel of expression is in the best interests of literature, however unobjectionable that channel may be.

—Dr. Andrew D. White's second paper on Hugo Grotius easily takes first rank among the contents of the January *Atlantic*. The 'De Jure Belli ac Pacis,' "the most beneficent of all volumes not claiming divine inspiration," is nevertheless not so wonderful as the faith of its author in working out such doctrines at a time when no other human being could see in the anarchic darkness of the age any tribunal which could recognize a plea for right reason in international affairs, or enforce a decision upon it. By faith alone could Grotius have courage to appeal to the heart and mind of man as the supreme tribunal. Dr. White makes the pertinent suggestion that, in the palace of international justice to be erected at The Hague, the statue of Grotius should stand supreme among the memorials with which its corridors will doubtless be embellished. The first instalment of Thoreau's Journal is contained in this number, with an introduction of some length by Bradford Torrey. It will doubtless be a surprise to many to be informed, with ample proof, that Thoreau's real knowledge of the plant and bird life about him was of a very limited character, and that, too, in matters in which knowledge depended upon nothing more difficult than the application of a good pair of eyes to what was continually going on about him. One is amused to find him on February 7 moralizing in a self-gratulatory tone as to his superiority over his neighbors in being able to dispense with winter clothing, only to be housed a week later with a severe attack of bronchitis. But there is evidence that experience brought wisdom, for ten days later he writes: "The care of the body is the highest exercise of prudence. If I have brought this weakness on my lungs, I will consider calmly and disinterestedly how the thing came about, that I may find out the truth and render justice." Col. Higginson gathers up still another thread of reminiscence in a paper on American audiences in the earlier days of the lecture platform.

—Mrs. Steuart Erskine's 'London as an Art City' (Scribners) belongs to a series of art monographs edited by Selwyn Brinton. It is clearly impossible in so brief a space to treat of the art treasures which London possesses, nor is the term "art city" at all suitable to London from any aspect. Mrs. Erskine's sketch begins with

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the earliest times: she considers that the Romans, when they imposed their laws on the country, in 61 A. D., gave the first impulse to art also. They founded the city, on their own lines, on the two hills divided by the Walbrook from the site of the Tower to the Fleet, Southwark being a populous suburb connected by a fortified bridge. Roman remains in the British and Guildhall Museums and tesselated pavements which are still existent show that the Romans made use of designs similar to those employed in Rome. Mrs. Erskine swiftly touches on the succeeding artistic impulses which made London down to our own twentieth century and its latest monuments—the splendid Roman Catholic Cathedral at Westminster in the early Christian Byzantine style, of brick and stone, with its campanile 284 feet high, designed by J. F. Bentley, and Lloyd's Registry, in the Renaissance style, in the City. A chapter is devoted to literary London, which tells of the associations of certain places with authors of celebrity, and another describes studios and artists. Mrs. Erskine has very optimistic views as to what is being done architecturally for London at this moment. She also seems hopeful about the tendencies of painting and sculpture. The book is illustrated fairly well, but has no index.

—Apparently the Anglo-Saxon race has, among its other qualities, an unlimited power of purchasing books on the French Revolution. The publishers will not call a halt until they are encouraged to do so by the public. In the meantime, the reviewer groans under a burden of writings which add nothing to the store of knowledge, and represent only the intrusion of kindergarten methods upon a sphere that does not belong to them. For thirty-five years after the restoration of Louis XVIII., France poured forth a tide of memoirs relating to every aspect of the Revolutionary and Napoleonic era. Whether authentic or apocryphal, most of these works were spun out to enormous length for the purpose of making lucrative "copy." During the past decade it has become a recognized industry to translate such literature, abridge it, make it the basis of historical novels, and, in short, to work it up in every conceivable style. No form of book-making is less difficult, but one may doubt whether it serves any useful end. We need not continue the subject farther. The foregoing remarks, which might be illustrated at great length, derive one further illustration from 'A Daughter of the Revolution,' by Catherine M. Bearne (Dutton). The central figure of this volume is Mme. Junot, the Duchess d'Abrantès, whose copious autobiography supplies most of the material required. Here and there bits, like Cazotte's prophecy, are interpolated from other sources, in order to lend the narrative more vivacity, but with few exceptions Mme. Junot's own tale is found the most convenient magazine of detail and anecdote. We cannot see that much skill has been shown in the work of adaptation, and therefore it becomes impossible to praise either method or result. Were there fewer books of the same sort, one might adopt a more genial tone in referring to this one, but in the interest of history we must protest against the multiplication of abridged and adapted memoirs.

—The Rev. Kota Hoshino's 'Mission of Japan and the Russo-Japanese War' (Yokohama: The Fukuin Printing Co., Limited) is a small tract of some sixty pages, half patriotism, half religion. An appendix gives the official correspondence containing the negotiations between Japan and Russia preceding the war, but the main drift of the book is to draw as a moral from Japan's present situation that what is needed chiefly there to "crown the edifice" is the general adoption of Christianity. The author is an ordained minister of the Church of Christ in Japan, and his main reason for advocating this change is that the country is in need of a religious system of greater moral power than any which it now has, and can find this only in Christianity. His conclusion is stated rather than supported by argument, and so is rather lame. We are merely told that the days of Buddhism and Shintoism and "Bushidōs" are over, and that to escape Utilitarianism and Materialism the only resource is the gospel. The greater part of the tract is a summary of facts bearing on the political and belligerent birth of the new Japan, and there is such a want of continuity between this and the religious part as to lead to a suspicion that the reverend author does not himself very well know why Japan should suddenly become Christian. One or two Japanese authorities whom he quotes seem to look upon the adoption of Christianity as an inevitable part of a true state policy. To be entirely Western and modern, and like those wonderful Americans who first showed Japan the path, is it not necessary to be Christian, too? Was it not through Christianity that modern Europe became great? Can a nation be truly great without becoming Christian? The old answer was that no nation could become great without accepting Christianity, because Christianity was the final revelation of Truth. Statesmen have, however, even in the Western world, promoted Christianity for other reasons.

—The Central Division of the Modern Language Association of America, writes a correspondent, held its tenth annual meeting in Chicago, December 28-30, in the City Building of Northwestern University. The meeting was in many ways a noteworthy one. In point of attendance it was considerably larger than that at Ann Arbor last year, notwithstanding the fact that last year's meeting was a national, and not a "division" meeting. Thirteen States and Canada were represented by teachers of modern languages from twenty-three educational institutions. Not only was the attendance larger than in former years, but there was a noticeable increase in the number of women present, and in the number of teachers from the secondary schools. Perhaps the most significant feature of the convention was the attention bestowed upon topics broadly educational in their scope, and hence of interest to men from the university and from the secondary school alike. The dominant note was struck at the first session by Professor Hohlfeld in his chairman's address, when he affirmed that the time is ripe for a readjustment of ideals here in America, such as has already been started in Germany. The university ideal of scholarly research ought not, he said, to be allowed to supplant permanently the old ideal of faithful and devoted teaching. That there has been such a change of emphasis is shown by the fact that whereas over one-half the papers which appeared in the Publications of the Association between 1884 and 1892 were pedagogical, now the Publications, like the other journals of the same class, are ostentatiously devoted to research. Professor Hohlfeld's contention was that neither ideal should be held to the exclusion of the other, but that both should be maintained with equal enthusiasm and at the same time. Quite in accord with the tone of the chairman's address was that of an extremely interesting paper by Professor Rambeau, director of foreign-language instruction in the Manual Training High School at Kansas City, on "The Teaching of Modern Languages in the American High School." Incidentally Professor Rambeau pointed out the dangers of the elective system now prevailing almost universally in the American high school as a result of the influence of President Eliot of Harvard. Its chief disadvantages are its expense and its tendency to encourage superficiality. He thinks we may profit by the experience of schools of a grade similar to ours abroad, particularly by that of the Realschule in Germany, because these present so close an analogy to our own high schools. Pedagogical subjects came in for still further and more detailed discussion at the departmental meetings. The informality of these sectional meetings as compared with former years, and the alert, even eager, manner of the participants in the discussion, showed conclusively that interest in them is increasing from year to year. Yet the attention of the Association was not confined to pedagogic matters. Among the most attractive papers was that presented by Professor Belden on "Folk-Song in Missouri." He has found a number of examples of ballads, some descendants of eighteenth-century English broadsides, some of native origin; the former showing curious variations from the original ballads as found in Child's collection, and all attesting the perennial hold of the ballad on a simple and illiterate people. The paper showed how a scholarly method may be applied, and important results obtained, from material apparently unpromising, and this in spite of a lack of library facilities such as are usually deemed essential conditions of productive research.

—The social element in the proceedings was, as usual, a prominent feature. At the business sessions the report of the joint committee appointed by the American Philological Association, the National Educational Association, and the Modern Language Association to consider the possibility of forming a phonetic alphabet was discussed. The report was approved and accepted, with the further suggestion that the committee consult with the various European committees with a view to securing international agreement. As officers for the ensuing year, Professor Blackburn of the University of Chicago was chosen chairman; Professor Weeks of the University of Missouri, secretary; and, as members of the executive committee, Professor Hohlfeld of the University of Wisconsin, Professor Bowen of Ohio State University, and Professor Dodge of the University of Illinois. The Association voted to accept the invitation of the University of Wisconsin to meet at Madison next year. It is probable

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that thereafter, at least on alternate years, the meetings will be held in Chicago.

SIR LESLIE STEPHEN ON HOBBES.

Hobbes. By Sir Leslie Stephen. (English Men of Letters.) The Macmillan Co. 1904.

This book is the last of Leslie Stephen's delightful and philosophical biographies. One is sorely tempted to make this the opportunity for a review of Stephen's own work as a thinker; but the occasion is not really appropriate. Hobbes is too considerable a figure among the moral and political philosophers of England to be made the text for an examination into any other man's achievements. Yet it may be possible to connect together, what (to the present writer at any rate) are almost inseparable thoughts as to Stephen's unrivalled skill as a critical biographer, and reflections on the career and speculations of Hobbes. It is worth while, in any case, to direct the attention of intelligent readers who are not metaphysicians to some among the answers given by Sir Leslie Stephen to questions which are certain to perplex any student who seriously peruses the latest biography of that "Thomas Hobbes of Malmesbury, author of the 'Leviathan,'" who was admittedly "the most conspicuous English thinker in the whole period between Bacon and Locke."

Was Hobbes a man of a selfish or heartless character? There have been plenty of censors, both in his lifetime and since his death, well inclined to answer this inquiry with a decided affirmative. A whole school of moralists treat Hobbes's system of ethics as grounded on selfishness, and it is natural, though not really logical, to believe, and to assert, that a teacher who makes self-interest the basis of human action, must himself be marked by obtrusive selfishness. Hobbes, too, always appeals to men's reason; he never attempts to enlist the support of sentiment or imagination. He is a logician, he is not a rhetorician or a poet. What is more natural than to conclude that so cool-headed a teacher was deficient in kindly feeling and incapable of warm friendship? Leslie Stephen shows us at once that this idea is unfounded.

"It would be altogether unjust to set down Hobbes as a man of cold nature. Whether he was a man to make any romantic sacrifice to friendship may indeed be doubted. Retired philosophers may congratulate themselves that they are seldom exposed to such trials, and in Hobbes's life the case did not occur. But everything goes to show that he was a man of kindly if not of ardent affections. Few men appear to have won so many friends or to have retained them so permanently. His long connection with the Cavendish family proves the existence of a mutual esteem creditable to both sides. . . . Certainly we cannot claim for him the posthumous affection which is bestowed upon men of the heroic type like his contemporary Milton, or of the saintly type like Archbishop Leighton. But neither of these eminent persons made any mark in philosophical speculation. We must admit the excellence for its own purpose of more than one type. A man who is above all to be a cool reasoner and to shrink from no conclusion forced upon him by his logic, is a very valuable person, and may be forgiven if his spiritual temperature does not rapidly rise to boiling-point and obscure his clearness of vision. Hobbes, if one may venture to say so, had probably quite as much benevolence as was good for a metaphysician."

These words sum up the whole matter. Men such as Hobbes live in the world of thought; their one vocation is to think truly; their legitimate enthusiasm is the passionate search after truth. The one object of their legitimate detestation is everything which impedes free inquiry. In an age when tolerance was unknown, Hobbes denounced persecution with unsparing vigor.

Did Hobbes publish the 'Leviathan' that he might gain the favor of Cromwell? Here again the assailants of Hobbes have looked upon his conduct from the most discrediting point of view. Hobbes might be counted at one time among the Royalist exiles at Paris. He was there mathematical tutor to the Prince of Wales, afterwards Charles II. In 1650 he was anxious, and not without reason, to return to England. He published the 'Leviathan' in the middle of 1651. The book admittedly encourages or enjoins obedience to any established sovereign. The duty of a subject is to submit to the sovereign *de facto* and not to yield allegiance to the sovereign *de jure*. Hobbes, soon after publishing the 'Leviathan' retired or escaped to England, and there lived peaceably. After the Restoration, Wallis, in a controversy with Hobbes, declared that the book was "writ in defence of Oliver's title." Clarendon asserted that, at the time of the publication, Hobbes, after a discourse between jest and earnest, had, when asked why he propounded the absolutist doctrine of his treatise, said, "The truth is, I have a mind to go home." Here we have surely the evidence of willingness to sacrifice loyalty to self-interest, yet in truth Leslie Stephen demonstrates that the charge against Hobbes is little better than slander or misapprehension.

Hobbes, it is certain, never changed his principles, for the principles of the 'Leviathan' are identical with principles found in the 'De Cive,' written long before the 'Leviathan.' Hobbes, again, on the return of Charles to Paris, after the final defeat at Worcester, actually presented the King with a manuscript copy of the 'Leviathan' which is now to be seen at the British Museum, and this copy contains the passages which were the most offensive to ordinary Royalists. His retreat or escape to England, it will be said, was in itself desertion of the King. But those who make this assertion neglect certain facts. Hobbes had been banished from the King's court. The Anglican prelates found fault with the theology of his book. He had certainly attacked the Catholic Church. He stood in fear of the Catholic clergy. He thought, rightly or not, that his life was in peril. From Charles he had received little favor. The young King was set against him, and trusted in those in whom his father had trusted. Hobbes, concludes our author, "was hardly called upon to stay in a place where his countrymen and the native authorities agreed in considering him to be an atheist, and held atheism to be not only damnable, but criminal."

To those who look upon Charles I. as a martyr, and Charles II. as the King to whom every Englishman owed moral allegiance, this apology will seem insufficient. Nor to some critics who have no respect or admiration for the Stuarts will it appear so clear as it seems to have been to Leslie Stephen, that a man of Hobbes's acuteness could not recognize the full import of the victory at Worcester and see in Cromwell the true sovereign of England. But the defence suggested for Hobbes does assuredly free him from any charge of political baseness. He never was a zealot for the King; his whole moral doctrine made it the course both of wisdom and of duty to obey every *de facto* sovereign. Without any treachery he acted in accordance with his avowed principles. He possibly, too, had, even in 1651, the insight or foresight to see in Cromwell the one European ruler who wished to establish toleration in matters of religion.

Was Hobbes in truth an atheist? This is an inquiry to which persons of very different classes give opposite answers with equal confidence. The man in the street, who hardly pretends to knowledge, and represents only ignorance and tradition, is prepared to say offhand that the philosopher was certainly an infidel and probably an atheist. This, no doubt, was the belief of the electors of Southwark who, some sixty years ago, were called upon by Mr. Miall to deprive Sir William Molesworth of his seat because he had edited the works of Hobbes, the infidel. It is perhaps hardly an unfair account of the contest to write, as does Molesworth's latest biographer, that "wherever he went in the constituency, Sir William was met by the absurd cry of 'No 'obbes' from people who knew as much of Hobbes as they knew of Egyptian hieroglyphics."

The liberal theologians, who profess to speak with a certain amount of knowledge, and who maintain the doctrine, for which it is not always easy to find a strictly logical ground, that a man's religious opinions have nothing to do with his fitness to fill every political office which is open to the citizens of a State, shirk the inquiry as to Hobbes's theological creed, and either, with Sir William Molesworth, ask the question whether in Hobbes's works you can find "one single sentence hostile to Christianity," or, with Sir William's biographer, content themselves with the perfectly true, but singularly irrelevant, remark that, "in a word, Hobbes was an Erastian." The plain truth is that the fanaticism of intolerance and the much more creditable enthusiasm for religious freedom and toleration are, like every form of passion, incompatible with sound and sane criticism. If we wish to know how far and in what sense Hobbes may be charged with atheism, we must turn to an author who, equipped with complete knowledge of his subject, recognizes the constantly forgotten consideration that a critic is a judge, and that his whole duty is to give true judgment according to the evidence. Never was any man better qualified for judicial criticism than Leslie Stephen. On a matter such as the tendency of Hobbes's opinions, he writes with unrivalled authority. No one can accuse him of want of sympathy with the philosopher. Our author clearly wishes to render to Hobbes the fullest justice. He points out with characteristic equity the distinction (which will always be overlooked by mere controversialists) between the true tendency and effect of a man's doctrines and the view of these doctrines which the man himself entertained. It is impossible to reproduce the whole of Stephen's view of Hobbes's theology; it is contained in some thirteen small pages, every word of which deserves careful study. But his conclusions are expressed with as much clearness as temperance, and may be given pretty nearly in Stephen's own words,

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We are in fact engaged in two different inquiries. The one, and by far the most important, is, What was the true tendency of Hobbes's teaching? The answer is this:

"If we now come to the question what was Hobbes's real position in regard to theology, I think that there can be only one answer. It is quite clear that his, like other materialistic systems, is incompatible with anything that can be called theism. His argument comes merely to this, that if the world was created—a point which, we see, he admits to be doubtful—the Creator must have been a Being of stupendous power, but one of whom we are unable to say anything else. . . . A religion of this kind is not likely to give much trouble to anybody; and Hobbes's opponents were right in regarding him as virtually opposed to all possible theology."

The other, and by far the less important inquiry, is, what Hobbes himself thought of his own position. A man may well hold dogmas which make for atheism and yet himself be a sincere deist. Leslie Stephen at any rate gives as fair a reply as the circumstances make possible:

"What Hobbes himself thought," he writes, "is not quite so obvious. There is a presumption, indeed, that so bold a thinker must have seen the plain inferences from his principles. . . . I do not, indeed, feel certain that Hobbes admitted, even to himself, the true nature of his position. He may have retained some of the horror for 'atheism' in which he had been educated, and thrown dust in his own eyes as well as in other people's. My chief reason for doubting [whether he recognized to the full the tendency of his philosophy] is that . . . he relies in his political writings upon certain doctrines as to the 'laws of God' which are apparently essential to his argument, and which could hardly be used by one to whom the words meant nothing."

If we regret that so powerful a thinker should have thrown dust in any one's eyes, we must remember, that, in Hobbes's time, free expression of opinion might mean death, and that

"it would, indeed, be difficult to blame a timid old gentleman for not courting martyrdom. The blame for reservation belongs to the persecutor more than to the persecuted. It is, I think, far more remarkable that Hobbes spoke so frankly than that he did not reveal his own mind."

To many readers, as to the present writer, it will seem that the fairest of critics has, after full examination, pronounced judgment, and that this judgment is likely to be final.

THE LETTERS OF AN EMOTIONALIST.

Letters of John Ruskin to Charles Eliot Norton. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904.

The friendship between Ruskin and Professor Norton began in 1855, when the greater part of Ruskin's work as an art-critic had already been done. The first and second volumes of 'Modern Painters' had been long before the public, and the 'Seven Lamps of Architecture' and the 'Stones of Venice' were published. The third and fourth volumes of 'Modern Painters' were in preparation, and only the fifth volume was to be written later, with much groaning, as a task that had to be done, though the author was more interested in other things, and doubted if the time and labor spent on matters of art were not all wasted. It is Ruskin the social reformer, the man who found the time out of joint, and conceived himself born to set it right, that wrote the letters to Norton; and yet these letters are perhaps most valuable for the light they throw backward on Ruskin the critic. It is only ironically that Ruskin refers to himself as "the author of 'Modern Painters' "; but it is as the author of 'Modern Painters' that he is most certain to be remembered. He was far from being the greatest of art-critics—far, even, from being the greatest of critics who have written in English—but he was, for good or evil, a phenomenally effective one, and the only man who has ever been able to arouse the general public to enthusiastic interest in writings devoted to art. As a social reformer he accomplished little or nothing. As a critic he made a colossal popular reputation for a painter whose genius was hardly of a popular order, and he exercised an unmistakable influence on the art of his own country and time—two things that no other critic has done. It is because of these things that we are interested in the personality of John Ruskin, and welcome anything that helps to make this personality clearer to us.

Professor Norton, who has connected the letters by passages of explanation and comment, expressly declines the attempt to depict in words a nature "in the highest degree complex"; but one sentence in his preface gives the key, as nearly as one sentence can, to what was strongest and weakest in Ruskin. Ruskin's will, he says, "was unstable, for in him reason was subject to sentiment and often to transient emotion." It is emotion more and more dominating reason until it becomes almost hysterical, and a self-abandonment to emotion which makes the final breakdown of the reason comprehensible, which give these letters their interest and their pathos. The man who prided himself above everything on his logical powers, and who thought he proved everything he advanced by calm and clear reasoning, is always working himself into a frenzy of enthusiasm, or lashing himself into a fury of denunciation, in which reason and plain fact are alike forgotten; and the possessor of a truly remarkable gift of observation becomes incapable of distinguishing between what he sees and what he would like to see. He is quite honest, yet altogether untrustworthy, and you can believe nothing because he says so—not even that a picture contains such and such figures.

It is the acuteness of his observation of natural facts and appearances that gives all its permanent value to Ruskin's writing, but it was his emotionalism that gave him his power with the public. A strange lack of creative force prevented his becoming an original artist, but he had in the highest degree the artistic temperament, and that gift of "infecting others with his own emotion" which Tolstoy makes the criterion of art. What he believed for the moment, he believed so intensely that he thought he knew it; what he felt, he felt so profoundly that he made others feel it also. He played upon men's emotions like a musician, and made them feel and think and even do as he wished.

Yet even as an artist in words there is the same futility and the same impotence that marked the artist in lines and colors. The lack of measure, of balance, of continuity, of controlling will and formative power, prevented his producing a single book that is a work of art. He makes, at times, a great parade of method, and lays out a scheme with divisions and subdivisions, but the filling in is essentially a matter of whim and impulse. Brilliant, eloquent, eccentric, wonderfully right or completely and astonishingly wrong, he is always the artist rather than the critic, but his art is that of the *improvvisatore*, not of the composer.

Of the generosity, the sweetness, the highmindedness, the personal lovableness of the man, there are many glimpses in these letters; of his clearness and shrewdness of observation there are some; of his bitter prejudices, his unrestrained and feverish emotion, and his utter irrationalism, there are most of all, and many of them would be comic if they were not pathetic. His prejudices and his hatreds were innumerable, for they included almost everything modern, but the fiercest was his hatred of America and Americans. Indeed, this became inclusive of all the others, for he held America responsible for everything else which he disliked—even, apparently, for the decrease of the snows of Mont Blanc. He seems, rather, to have loved all the Americans he knew, but this did not prevent his hating all those he did not know. He is sure there is no hope for American art because a well-meaning young lady sent him some studies of autumn leaves, and he is convinced that all American scenery is ugly because he has seen some landscape paintings which he does not like. At the outbreak of the civil war his antagonism becomes still more intense. He writes letters which, under the circumstances, must have been a strain on friendship, and finally ceased to write altogether. After the fighting is over and friendly intercourse resumed, he says, under date of September 11, 1865: "The war has put a gulf between all Americans and me in that I do not care to hear what they think, or tell them what I think, on any matter; and Lowell's work and Longfellow's is all now quite useless to me."

Of Ruskin's sudden reversals of opinion under stress of feeling, and of his positiveness of the rightness of his present mind on any matter, there are many instances here. In 1874 he was in Assisi, where he had gone to copy Giotto. On the 19th of June he records his "discovery" of a Cimabue,

"wholly unexpected—Vasari mistaking, as usual, the place where he is, and everybody passing, as I did myself, the apparently coarse Madonna of the Scuola Greca. At last I set myself on it on a bright day and upset Giotto from his pedestal in a minute or two's close look."

Two days later he has got far enough to say:

"It may be useful to you in your own work to know what I have—I may already almost say—ascertained about him. That he [Cimabue] was a man of personal genius, equal to Tintoret, but with his mind entirely formed by the Gospels and the Book of Genesis; his art, as you know, what he could derive from Byzantine masters—and his main disposition, *compassion*. . . . Giotto is a mere domestic gossip, compared to Cimabue. Fancy the intellect of a Phidias with the soul of St. John and the knowledge of a boy ten years old. . . . I am prepared to assert her for the sublimest Mater Dolorosa ever painted, as far as my knowledge extends, in the Italian Schools."

And all this on the strength of a few days devoted to the study of a picture whose

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authorship is entirely conjectural, the attribution resting on no authority but his own, and about a painter by whom no well-authenticated work exists.

As we have said, however, these letters deal more with social reform and "political economy" than with art, and it is in several letters written in August of 1869 that Ruskin's peculiarities of temperament are perhaps most clearly shown. From these we must quote at some length. First, under date of August 15, we have this:

"Meantime, look here: No one can do me any good by loving me; . . . . but people do me good by making *me* love *them*—which isn't easy. Now I can't love you rightly as long as you tacitly hold me for so far fool as to spend my best strength in writing about what I don't understand. The best thing you can do for me is to ascertain and master the true points of difference between me and the political economists. If I am wrong, show me where—it is high time. If *they* are wrong, consider what that wrong extends into; and what your duty is between them and me."

Three days later he breaks out again:

"I do not (in my books) dispute Mill's morality; but I flatly deny his *Economical Science*, his, and all others of the school; I say they have neither taught, nor can teach, men *how to make money*—that they don't even know so much as what money is—or what makes it become so—that they are *not* wise men (nor—I say *here, good* men); that they have an accursed semblance of being all these, which has deceived you and thousands more of *really* good and wise men."

And a little later in the same letter:

"*Don't tell me* any more about good and wise people 'giving their lives' to the subject and 'differing from me.' They *don't differ* (look in dictionary for *Differo*) from me. They are absolutely contrary to and in *Collision* with me; they don't know the *alphabet* even of the science they profess; they don't know the meaning of one word they use; not of Economy, for they don't know the meaning of *Nomy* nor of law, nor of the verb *νέμω*; not of a House, for they have no idea of Family; not of politics, for they don't know the meaning of a city; not of money, for they don't know the meaning either of *nummus* or *pecus;* and if you were to ask Mill at this moment, he couldn't tell you the historical facts connected with the use of alloy in precious metals—he could tell you a few banker's facts, and no more.

"They don't know even the meaning of the word 'useful'—they don't know the meaning of the word 'to use,' nor of *utor*, nor *abutor*, nor *fruor*, nor *fungor*, nor *potior*, nor *vescor*. The miserable wretches haven't brains enough to be prologue to an egg and butter, and you talk of their giving their lives! They haven't lives to give; they are not alive—they are a strange spawn begotten of misused money, senseless conductors of the curse of it, flesh-flies with false tongues in the proboscis of them. Differ from *me*, indeed. Heaven help me! I am bad enough and low enough in a thousand ways, but you must know the difference between them and me, a little better, one day. And that's 'just what I mean.'"

After this display of sweet reasonableness, which may, indeed, have been partly humorous in its exaggeration, it is a little surprising to find him saying: "I do not know what it was in my last letter that gave you the impression of arrogance. I never wrote with less pride in my heart." He had already forgotten what he had written, and attributes Norton's characterization to another and earlier letter.

Such a mind and such a temper could end only in tragedy. After confusing art and religion for years, he comes to the conclusion, one day, in studying Veronese, that "positively, to be a first-rate painter—you *mustn't* be pious; but rather a little wicked, and entirely a man of the world." The discovery not only upset his belief in his own earlier teaching, and gave him a shock from the effects of which "he never wholly recovered," but it was indirectly responsible for all the misery of his later life. "In 1858," says Professor Norton, "he had had for a pet and pupil in drawing a girl ten years old, Rose La Touche, who became, as time went on, the mistress of his heart. . . . She loved him, but refused to be his wife, because, holding a strict evangelical creed, she could not make up her mind to marry a skeptic." They tortured themselves and each other until her death in 1875; then Ruskin began to dabble in spiritualism, and "got into a steady try if I couldn't get Rosie's ghost at least alive by me, if not the body of her." In 1878, through overwork, overexcitement, and the lack of all self-restraint, his brain gave way, and he suffered the first of those attacks of intermittent insanity which clouded his later years. The last letter printed here was written in 1887; the last published work in 1889, which ends with a tribute to an affection that had endured more than thirty years. "The last ten years of his life were spent in retirement, and, save for recurrent attacks of brain trouble, his days were peaceful, and not unhappy."

Dar-ul-Islam: A Record of a Journey through Ten of the Asiatic Provinces of Turkey. By Mark Sykes. London: Bickers & Son; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1904. Pp. xxii, 294; many maps and photographs.

The journey here described was taken in the winter of 1902-3, and ran north from Beirut by Aleppo, Marash, Zeitun to Derendeh; thence zigzagged by Urfa, Diarbekr, Amadia, Mosul, to Sulimanieh on the south; then back by Amadia and Van to the Russian frontier, returning by Tiflis and Batum. A side journey deviated to Palmyra, and the route was highly tortuous throughout.

In the record itself three things stand out. First, certain portions of the route have been mapped with care, though only in sketches, on a scale of four to five miles to the inch. These sketch-maps extend from Aleppo to Killis, Shaykhli, Marash, Zeitun, Albistan, Hassan Shelebi, Hekim Khan, Malatia. (The spelling of these names, evidently inconsistent, is that of Mr. Sykes and his geographical editor, Professor Keane.) At Malatia there is a break, easily explained by the weather, extending to Besne, although the route-table refers to a map. From Besne to Hewek is mapped, then much-travelled ground is struck, and the next map is from Zakho north of Mosul to Amadia, to Akra, to Rezan, on the Zab; from Kalat Sherkat on the Tigris to Altin Kiopru or Kantara (both meaning much the same, 'bridge') on the lesser Zab; from Dukhon to Rania, to Rowandiz, to Rezan, all in the Zab country. These maps, with the route-tables, form a by no means inconsiderable contribution to the still uncertain geography of northern Syria and Mesopotamia.

Second, there is an admirable series of sixty-eight photographs, all of value in giving either types of scenery, agriculture, etc., or of races. They are not trivial, but to the point. But the backbone of the book consists, thirdly, of the equally photographic and immediate observations and notes of the author himself. The book was written, practically, upon the spot, and we have in it, "untouched," the sensations and ideas of a fresh and keen mind passing through these most distressful countries. Thus he has made no attempt to reduce his impressions to misleading uniformity and fallacious law. It would be easy to find inconsistencies and contradictions in them, but that has not disturbed him. So it seemed to him at one place, so otherwise at another. Generalities on races—a fruitful source of misleadings—he will not have. He has seen far too much variation where the environments were different. Of course, with all this there goes some prejudice. He is affected by the repulsion from the native Christians which every traveller feels. The virtues of the dominant races naturally appeal to him, and the too often unhappy results of Europeanizing, as in the "Gosmobaleet," move either to horror or to laughter. So, from time to time, he seems—it probably does not go far below the surface—to fail to see the permanent good in the steady work being done by missionary institutions throughout his field of view. Education, for him, is all very well, though it tends sometimes to the ridiculous, but who can resist this picturesque "tail" of an Agha: "Squatting on the floor and divan, a host of cartridge-girdled Martini-bearers grinned at us with terrier-like cheeriness"? Armenians, too, are either poor creatures without any fight in them—which is often true—or conspirators with dynamite in their boots and treachery in their hearts. The usual explanations of the massacres are given, many of which are certainly true, but the unshaken fact that they were directed and carried through by the central Government is dropped untouched. On that, Vambéry's evidence in his just published autobiography, is ample. Of Mr. Sykes's rabid Teutophobia the less said the better.

But allowances can be made. There remains a very clear-eyed and withal picturesque record of things seen and heard. A few quotations will make this plain. First, a description and a meditation, both of essential truth:

"I arrived at Rayak about 1:30, not more than an hour late, and there prepared to board the Hama train; this conveyance was filled with people, some frantically mounting, others excitedly descending from the cars. At one third-class carriage three native porters were wildly endeavoring to cram a Turkish officer, a Saratoga Trunk, a little Boy and some Loaves of bread into a compartment which already contained three Mohammedan Women, a Fruit-seller, a Zaptieh, a Barber, a Prisoner, a Native Mission teacher, the Zaptieh's saddlebags, a Sword, two Umbrellas, a Bandbox containing a Sewing Machine, the Fruit-seller's Stall, and one hundred and fifty Oranges in a cloth. The cloth had burst, and the oranges streamed through the chinks in the door not occupied by the porters wrestling with the officer; the Mohammedan ladies explained in brief that there was 'no Majesty and no Might save that of Allah, the Glorious and the Great'; the Zaptieh, who had not paid his fare, roared explanations over the Officer's shoulder; the porters thrust the Officer; the Officer pushed the fruit-seller; the Fruit-seller cast aspersions on the religion and ancestors of the Oranges; the Barber cried 'Shame!' on all for having so little self-control, while the Mission Teacher, on whom he was sitting, was too overcome to make any comment. Truly there was no engine on the train, nor was there any likelihood of its immediate movement; but it must not be

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supposed that Orientals are never in a hurry; on all occasions of departure or arrival, confusion, violence, and strife reign supreme; fatalism is forgotten, and it is every man's duty to heave, to punch, to kick, to curse and swear, until the train, steamer, or caravan has started" (pp. 2-3).

Then an impression, threadbare, but renewed by a parallel:

"The whole of the route to Ma'aret en-Noman is dotted with wells and tombs, all interesting and worthy of archæological observation: it is on such a road as this that the contrast between the South African veldt and Syrian open country is so remarkable—the former empty, unmeaning, where man is an uninteresting cipher, and the only thoughts of the traveller can be of the future; but in Syria every stone has an interest, every hill has been trodden into paths, man has left his marks on every rock; the very caverns are inhabited by troglodytes, and every stage of early society is to be seen—the cave-dweller, the nomad, the semi-nomad, the villager, the townsman. No one who has the least imagination can long remain unaffected by such associations. The road from Damascus to Aleppo has seen nations rise and fall, vanish, revive, and die out; many have trodden its dusty paths, and there are more to come" (p. 52).

Then an observation, true beyond question:

"Personally, I think that the public moral sense of Europeans is practically wanting in Orientals, and unless this is assumed one cannot attempt to comprehend them; meaning that an Oriental is capable of all personal goodness, such as acts of personal friendliness, personal devotion, personal self-sacrifice, and brotherly love to those of his own creed; mercy to one's enemies and mercy in public matters is absolutely lacking. Whether this is a defect, and, if it is a defect, whether it can be remedied by education, or whether it is caused by race or religion, are questions which must be left to philosophers and men of science" (p. 78).

Another, closing a paragraph all equally to the point: "Orientals hate to be worried, and hate to have their welfare attended to—oppression they can bear with equanimity, but interference in their private affairs, even for their own good, they never brook with grace" (p. 104). Of a Jekyll and Hyde suggestiveness is this: "Indeed, it is not a good thing to know too much of Orientals; if you do, perhaps you may wake up one morning and find that you have become one. Horrible instances of this kind have occurred; and any one who has seen an Oriental European usually retires to a convenient distance to be sick" (p. 171). The truth of all which, every Orientalist, whether of the bazar or the study, will recognize. And there is very much more of the like. A solitary incomprehensible lapse is (p. 64) the denying of humor to Turks, except as to the broad, practical joke. Surely Mr. Sykes has read his Nasir ed-Din Khoja. Finally, may the hope and not the fear here expressed (p. 35) for the Syrian fellahin be the event:

"They are easy to rule, and will be easy to raise from their present state of squalor, for all their faults are those of ignorance or omission; hence it is to be hoped that their future will be happier than their past—unless, indeed, the East becomes a prey to capitalists of Europe or America, in which case a designing Imperial Boss might, untrammelled by the Government, reduce them to serfdom for the purpose of filling his pockets and gaining the name of Empire-maker."

An Abridged History of Greek Literature. By Alfred Croiset, Dean of the Faculty of Letters of the University of Paris, and Maurice Croiset, Professor of Greek Literature in the State College of France. Authorized Translation by George F. Heffelbower, A.M., Professor of Greek in Carroll College. Macmillan. 1904. Pp. x, 569.

This handsome and well-printed volume is an English version of an abridgment of the 'Histoire de la Littérature Grecque,' by MM. Croiset. The original work we have no hesitation in pronouncing the best history of Greek literature that has yet been written. Its composition engaged the industry of those eminent scholars for more than twelve years, the first volume appearing in 1887, the fifth and last in 1899. Each of them took certain periods of the literature and treated them independently, but submitted his work to the counsel and revision of his colleague. Thus securing the advantages both of independence and collaboration, and each being endowed not only with the laborious patience of the professional student, but also with that fine critical insight, large sympathy, and catholicity of taste which distinguish the French savant at his best, they made the result of their joint efforts equally a boon to scholarship and to letters.

The year after their last volume appeared, MM. Croiset published an abridgment, achieved chiefly by striking out all matters of controversy and minute scholarship. The essential facts of history, and all that was most important and striking in criticism and appreciation, were retained. In other words, whereas the original is a work of reference which no one would ever think of reading through, many will read the shorter book with pleasure from cover to cover. If the reader desire information about the Erotic Fragments, or conjectures about the life of Empedocles, he should consult the five-volume edition. But if he be in quest of definite facts in regard to well-known writers, or illluminating discourse upon them, he will save time and lose nothing of importance by going to the one-volume manual.

We are compelled to say, on the other hand, that both the larger and smaller works are strangely deficient in treating the origins of the Greek people. The first words of the first chapter of the abridgment run thus: "The Hellenic race belongs to the great Aryan family, and it forms, together with the Italian race, a distinct group, characterized by two things: a close affinity of idioms and similar fundamental religious conceptions." But the theory of a Græco-Italic unity has long since been exploded, and the theory of an Italo-Celtic unity has taken its place.

"The race from which the Greeks of history sprang," we read further, "appears between the twentieth and fifteenth centuries, scattered in tribes of various names, on the coast of Asia Minor, in the islands of the Ægean Sea, in Thrace, Macedonia, and the Hellenic Peninsula. Apparently that race came from the Orient and gained possession of these territories little by little, now by land and now by sea. Although tradition would seem to unite the tribes under the common term of Pelasgi, we can be sure that they do not constitute one people. For the only bond between them was that of a common origin and language. . . . The Pelasgic period, then, was one of confused elaboration, during which the future Greek race seems to have lived, if one may so put it, in an inorganic state" (pp. 1-2).

It is hard to see how scholars who have presumably kept abreast of archæological and ethnological science for the past twenty years can make such statements as these.

Outside of this strange lapse in regard to early history, we have found nothing that calls for serious criticism. The treatment, in chapter iii., of early epic poetry and the literary conditions in primitive Greece show a fine historical as well as critical discernment. The Homeric question is fairly stated, and the conclusion of the authors is modest and conservative, as befits a subject so obscure. In connection, however, with the statement on page 46 that the vocabulary of the Odyssey is more modern than that of the Iliad, should go the qualification that the Iliad in some of its parts, notably in the whole of the ninth book, is in language and vocabulary on the same temporal plane as the Odyssey.

But the fact which most clearly proves the title of our authors to a high place among literary critics and historians, is that they are at their best in dealing with the classical period, in which they are concerned with certainties and not conjectures, and in which the Hellenic genius reached its highest intellectual development and its highest artistic expression. Of the melic poets, the tragedians, the comedians, the historians, the orators, the appreciations by MM. Croiset are delightful to read and full of instruction.

Mr. Heffelbower's translation is fluent enough, but full of infelicities when reproducing MM. Croiset's rendering of gems of Greek literature. A few examples may suffice. (P. 121) "Dainty Eros" becomes "*delicious* Eros." "Eros like a *butcher* has struck me with his great *cleavers*," seems to be due to the similarity of form between *butcher* and *bûcheron*. "*Scorning me with her lips*, turned to another," is quite absurd. (P. 136) Simonides, in his dirge over the Greeks who fell at Thermopylæ, says: "This grave holds the glory of Greece; to this Leonidas is witness." But our translator makes of it: "The urn that holds the ashes of these heroes *has the most brilliant polish that Greece can give. See if you will that of Leonidas of Sparta.*" (This sounds like a recommendation of a stove polish.) And on the same page, the *chest* in which Danaë and her infant were put into the water, becomes an "exquisitely built *wherry*." On page 428, the *Ephemerides of* Alexander are said to be somewhat like "the *Mémoires de Dangeau* of Macedonian Epic"; but what this is, no one could say. Did the translator suppose the *Mémoires de Dangeau* to be a Macedonian epic?

The God Asclepius and the poet Asclepiades are both *Asclepias* to the translator, and that repeatedly. Milo is made to "regret his lost heifers" (p. 448), while Theocritus says that his heifers *miss Milo;* "a goat's foot wounded by a thorn" should be Battus's foot wounded by a thorn"; "Thyonnichus will forget the *unfaithfulness*" should be "Thyonichus will forget his unfaithful mistress." On the next page, the wish of Theocritus that he might again attend such a harvest-home festival and again fix his winnowing shovel in the top of the pile of grain, is twisted into, "O that I *still might fan the chaff from my grain.*" And on the next page, the wish of the reaper that he were as rich as Crœsus—then he would dedicate to Aphrodite golden statues of his love and him-

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self—becomes: "*'Would I were as rich as Crœsus,' men say; but even our statues, though made of gold, are adorned for Aphrodite.*"

A translation which shows such inaccuracy and such ignorance of the masterpieces of Greek literature of which it treats, should be used with extreme caution.

The Strategy of Great Railroads. By Frank H. Spearman. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1904.

Mr. Spearman is an enthusiast about American railroads, and it is difficult to escape from the contagion of his enthusiasm. He writes well, and with full and accurate knowledge of his subject, but his optimism leads him to avoid altogether or to pass lightly over the less pleasing parts of the railroad story. The book deals with nine of the great systems, viz.: the Vanderbilt, Pennsylvania, Harriman, Hill, Gould, Rock Island, Atchison, St. Paul and Northwestern. In each case full justice—perhaps more than justice—is done to the skill and sagacity which have brought about these great combinations. The remaining chapters describe the rebuilding of the Chicago & Alton as an example of judicious expenditure in bringing an old road up to the requirements of modern business; next, the difficulties overcome by the builders of the first transcontinental line; and, lastly, the early days of railroading. The last chapter gives an interesting account of the efforts made by the inhabitants of Erie, Pa., to prevent what is now the Lake Shore road from running trains through the town. Railroad companies did not find much favor in the courts of those days, and from 1853 to 1856 the efforts of the townspeople were entirely successful.

Of course it is pleasant to the patriotic mind to learn that whereas, in 1852, the Pennsylvania Railroad moved 70,000 tons of freight in a year, it now moves as much in an hour; that, as a result of modern improvements, a ton of freight is hauled forty miles for ten cents; that, owing to the "community of interest" method of conducting railroad business, the secret freight rates and rebates that built up the Standard Oil fortunes have been done away with. All these things and many others like them mark the steady development of railroad business, but Mr. Spearman does not refer to other aspects of the case which are not so cheerful. For instance, accidents are increasing more rapidly than earnings, and the number of deaths on railroads, due to preventable causes, is simply appalling. Again, the present prosperity of some of the great systems described by Mr. Spearman, notably the Harriman and the Atchison, is largely due to the drastic reorganizations of a few years ago. It is no secret that in those reorganizations the interests of security holders were ruthlessly sacrificed for the benefit of the reorganizers, and European holders (of whom there were many) still feel aggrieved over their losses, and would hardly join in Mr. Spearman's pæans over the brilliant position which the systems in question now occupy.

But, after proper allowance has been made for shortcomings attributable to Mr. Spearman's optimism, it must be said that his book is on the whole an admirable study of the American railroads of today; and we would suggest a second volume dealing with the anthracite roads, the Southern, the Illinois Central, etc., so as to cover the whole ground and establish a record of the situation as it now appears.

Theophano. By Frederic Harrison. Harper & Bros.

In the preface to a book published in 1894, Mr. Harrison, long known as a Positivist and historical essayist, stated that he had been "constantly occupied with the teaching of history since 1862." It is only such an occupation (or, to speak more truly, such an obsession) that accounts for this so-called novel. The "Widow Theophania," who takes up one sentence in Gibbon's work, here forms the main theme of 485 pages. Not unnaturally, therefore, the volume is padded to a degree that makes even the writer say: "The very enumeration of the endless stages . . . becomes intolerable." Whole chapters are devoted to processions, sieges, funerals, descriptions of Mr. Harrison's beloved Constantinople, coronations, marches, etc., in all of which the reader, unless exceptionally familiar with the history of Byzantium in the tenth century, feels, like Eric the Norwegian, one of the minor characters, that his knowledge is "far too slight and vague to enable him to follow." Of plot and characterization there is virtually none, and the dialogue serves only to impart information in the manner dear to Mr. Puff. The weight of learning goes even into the terminology, and we are confronted at every turn with such words as akritas, proto-spathaire, cathisma, and the like. Under our sense of overwhelming ignorance, it seems almost presumptuous to criticise the spelling of Appollonius and Amalphi, or to question the transliteration which produces such a word as Tzykanisterion.

This is, we believe, Mr. Harrison's first novel, and as such it is entitled to respect; but surely never was there an instance where the much study of the writer resulted in greater weariness of the reader's flesh.

The Epistles of Erasmus, from his Earliest Letters to his Fifty-first Year. English Translations by Francis Morgan Nichols. Vol. II. Longmans, Green & Co. 1904.

This second volume of Mr. Nichols's translations from the letters of Erasmus of Rotterdam will be heartily welcomed by all students of the Renaissance and all admirers of the unique genius of the writer. In the first volume, published in 1901 and noticed at the time in these columns, the editor laid down the principles which he proposed to follow in his selection and arrangement. Without making undue claims to infallibility in his results, he worked out a chronological scheme which, in the absence of all trustworthy precedent, is probably as useful as any that is likely to be invented by any other writer. It is certainly as nearly correct as the attempts of the two Germans, Richter and Reich, which, taken together, cover the ground of Mr. Nichols's two volumes. In the introduction to volume i. the editor promised a more detailed examination of Reich's book which covers the period included in volume ii., but it is a little singular that no reference is made to him in the preface to volume ii., and that, so far as we have been able to see, his name appears but once, and then in a very brief note. It is true that the chronology for this second period of Erasmus's correspondence is much more easily established than for the former period, but it would have been instructive to know where and why Mr. Nichols differs from Reich's arrangement.

The same qualities of careful rendering and intelligent conjecture mark the work of this as of the first volume, and the same little formalities and tricks of usage occur here as there. The attempt to give an idea of the course of narrative by continually changing page-headings is most praiseworthy where there is a continuous narrative, but where, as is the case here, the subject treated varies with every few lines, this practice is wasteful and confusing. Mr. Nichols seems to have a taste for putting foreign names into English, but is not consistent even here. Why say Josse Bade and Peter Gillis? On the whole, it is safer to keep to the Latin except where there is a perfectly recognized English form. Mr. Nichols falls into the usual error, that Erasmus was a counsellor of Charles V. in something more than a titular sense. In this volume appears the famous Grunnius correspondence, on which the biographers of Erasmus used to place their chief reliance for the story of his early years. We are inclined to agree heartily with Mr. Nichols in his bold assertion that this correspondence, Grunnius and all, is a pure fiction of Erasmus to cover up a plan he had much at heart, but which he did not care to bring out before the world.

It is not likely that the critical work here attempted by Mr. Nichols will be done again soon, if ever. It offers an indispensable starting-point for every future study of the great humanist.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alec-Tweedie, Mrs. Sunny Sicily. Macmillan Co. $5.
Annesley, Charles. The Standard Opera-glass. Brentano's.
Becke, Louis. Under Tropic Skies. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Bertouch, Baroness de. The Life of Father Ignatius. Dutton. $3 net.
Calhoun, Alice J. When Yellow Jasmine Blooms. Neale Publishing Co. $1.50.
Cambridge Natural History: Fishes, Ascidians, etc. Macmillan Co. $4.25.
D'Arblay's (Madame) Diary and Letters. Edited by Austin Dobson. Vol. I. Macmillan Co. $2.50.
Douglas, James. Theodore Watts-Dunton. John Lane. $3.50 net.
Evans, Henry Ridgeley. The Napoleon Myth. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.
Fletcher, A. E. Thomas Gainsborough, R.A. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Foley, James W. Prairie Breezes. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Gilchrist, Rosetta Luce. Tibby. Neale Publishing Co. $1.50.
Gregg, David, and Others. Makers of the American Republic. E. B. Treat & Co. $2.
Hazlitt, William. Collected Works. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Hill, Frank A. Seven Lamps for the Teacher's Way. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Jabez, Brother. A Tale of the Kloster. Philadelphia: Griffith & Rowland Press.
Jenks, Tudor. In the Days of Shakspere. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.
Lawson, Publius V. Bravest of the Brave. Menasha, Wis.: Published by the Author.
Lent, Edward B. Being Done Good. 2d ed. Brooklyn Eagle Press.
Lethaby, W. R. Mediæval Art. Imported by Scribners. $2 net.
Lewis and Clark Exposition. Original Journals, 1804-1806. Vol II. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Lydston, G. Frank. The Disease of Society. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $3 net.
Macaulay's Essays. Edited by Lady Trevelyan. 6 vols. Putnams. $6 per set.
Mann, Henry. Adam Clarke. Popular Book Co.
McLaughlin, James M., and W. W. Gilchrist. New Second Music Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Meigs, William M. The Life of Thomas Hart Benton. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $2 net.
Messiner, M. Aus Deutschen Landen. Edited by Josefa Schrakamp. Henry Holt & Co. 35 cents net.

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Michael, Oscar S. The Sunday School. Milwaukee: Young Churchman Co. $1.50.
Morris, Charles. Historical Tales. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Multatuli. Walter Pieterse. Friderici & Gareis. $1.50.
Munro, Dana Carleton, and George Clarke Sellery. Mediæval Civilization. Century Co. $1.25 net.
Nares, Robert. A Glossary of World Phrases, Names, and Allusions. Dutton. $3 net.
Oppel, Alwin. Natur und Arbeit. Vol. 2. Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut.
Osborn, Hartwell, and Others. Trials and Triumphs. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Rea, Hope. The Tuscan and Venetian Artists. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Richter, Jean Paul, and A. Cameron Taylor. The Golden Age of Classic Christian Art. London: Duckworth & Co.
Rodd, Sir Rennell. Sir Walter Raleigh. Macmillan Co. 75 cents.
Spemann's Goldenes Buch vom eigenen Heim. Stuttgart: W. Spemann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Steele, K. N. Simple Rules for Bridge. William R. Jenkins.
Story, Douglas. The Campaign with Kuropatkin. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Strode, Muriel. My Little Book of Prayer. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.
Stubbs, William. Letters. Edited by William Holden Hutton. Dutton. $4 net.
Wesselitsky-Bodjidarovitch, Sergi de. Caucasian Legends. Translated by A. Goulbat. Hinds, Noble & Eldredge. 75 cents.
Whitaker's Peerage, 1905, and Whitaker's Almanack, 1905. London: J. Whitaker & Sons.
Who's Who, 1905. Macmillan Co. $2.
Wigmore, John Henry. Evidence in Trials at Common Law. Vol. III. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Wilson, William R. A. A Rose of Normandy. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

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